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Colonial and Indian Exhibition,

1886.

HER MAJESTY'S COLONIES.

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INTRODUCTION.

By J. R. SEELEY, M.A.,

Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge.

FIVE-AND-THIRTY years ago the lamented Prince Consort called into existence the first Great Exhibition, by which the industry of all nations was displayed to us in its fruits. He thus originated a method of bringing before the public attention those vast subjects which often by their very vastness escape us, even when it is most important that we should bear them in mind.

It has seemed to H.R.H. the Prince of Wales that the great Realm or Commonwealth—either word seems better than Empire—over which his mother reigns, is a subject of this kind, and that it eminently needs to be brought home to our imaginations by this method. It is vast and widely scattered; it is not identical with the English-speaking world, for it includes India, and does not include the United States; the only unity it has is political.

Accordingly he has set on foot the Colonial and Indian Exhibition. In connexion with it are issued, under the authority of the Royal Commission, Handbooks of the different groups of Colonies, and also a Handbook of all collectively, under the title "Her Majesty's Colonies." And it has been thought well that these Handbooks should offer, in addition to detailed information, a few general reflexions on the origin and history of the Colonies and on their relation to the mother country.

That a great commercial country should have a certain number of colonial settlements on the other side of the sea seems a matter of course. It has been the case with England since the latter part of the seventeenth century, when she had already such settlements in North America, in the West Indian Islands and in India. They were in the first instance mainly a par-

hinery of trade. They were supposed to be only useful to th
ntry as serving to increase its wealth, when they were not
ctuary for its religious refugees. All this is now transforme
t the change has taken place gradually and outside the range
sion of those who live in England. Those who would understa
must make an effort of conception; and it will cost then
reater effort to grasp the present greatness of the English Re
han to realise that of the United States. For most of
who seldom have the wish or the temptation to look beyond
own island, the colonies are still much what they were a cent
ago, distant places vaguely connected with England, which s
us wool and sugar and lumber, into which our friends sometim
disappear, and out of which sometimes they return. Nay, M.
Froude tells us that some of our leading statesmen not so long ag
had a conception of them little more distinct, and that Lord
Palmerston, on taking over the Colonial Office, begged a friend to
et maps and show him "where these places were."

An exhibition of their products in one building may assist
he power of conception; but we must bear in mind that these
products are no more a measure of the greatness of the colonies
than the mother country itself could be fairly represented
by exhibiting specimens of its manufactures. The colonies are
something more than corn-fields or sheep-runs or timber-forests.
The men that send us these products, like ourselves, form societies.
They have churches and governments, parliaments, universities
and schools. They are great communities in an early stage, and
there is no reason why the names of New Zealand or Victoria
hould not one day sound as impressively in the ears of men as
names of England or France, Italy or Greece.

ersons who had a more active imagination than Lord
rston were impressed, two hundred years ago, with this
ity, with the pregnancy of English colonization. In the
Cromwell and Charles II. England began to feel herself
of the sea, and heiress of the lands beyond the sea.
ictures her as standing "with all her daughter-lands about
t this is in the style of a prophet, who sees what will be
ore vividly than what is. So stands England now; but
had only settlements in North America and the West
slands, which could hardly be called great; she was a
n the Southern hemisphere, and but a humble trader in

longer regarded as commercial stations, their inhabitants were longer treated as secondary to their products, and as this reform took place at a time when Europe, and especially England, had begun to send forth more steadily than before its abundant population the period of the foundation of new states began. The mother country renounced all interested views and all invidious rights. Parliamentary institutions were set up in the colonies, and the utmost degree of independence in internal government was allowed to them. The connexion indeed of the mother country with the colonies was suffered to become very slight. Perhaps in ceasing to be unjust to them we did not cease to be cold. But our coldness now took the form of repelling them from us, instead of keeping too tight a hand on them. We began to hint to them that as they brought us no profit, we did not see why we should be burdened with them; we began to provoke and suggest secession. This was a new error; but under the system of indifference nothing checked the internal growth and development of the colonies. They were no longer at once checked by tutelage and embittered by injustice.

And thus these vast continental communities of the future world begin their career prosperously. They have no congenital disease, such as that disease of slavery which in the United States broke out so terribly eighty years after the Declaration of Independence. Their institutions have been framed deliberately and at leisure in time of peace, not shaped almost at haphazard under the pressure of a War of Independence, as in the United Provinces. Their history does not open with a period of confusion. They receive by tranquil inheritance those political institutions which in the Old World have been found the most solid.

Thus the Realm is at once vast in magnitude, the communities of which it is composed have had a long growing-time of prosperity and peace, and their prospect is at least so far negatively satisfactory that nothing has yet been done, so far as we can perceive, to compromise it.

Of all the results of English history none is comparable to the creation of this enormous, prosperous, in great part homogeneous Realm, and it can be paralleled by nothing in the history of any other state. How has it grown up, and through what stages of development has it passed?

The history of it falls into two distinct periods, which a

n of the Great Mogul. She had but made a beginning; World Power she still lagged far in the rear of Spain and and many impediments might be foreseen or apprehended uld limit her colonial progress.

establish a few settlements on the coasts of the New World commence a trade in its productions, was but a first step, d yet it might easily have proved to be also the last step verything depended on the condition of the interior. In India, for example, there was a teeming native population, organised in great states which supported powerful armies. There accordingly for a long time we did not advance beyond the first stage of commercial stations, and we should never have advanced further but for the decline of the Mogul Empire, and the general anarchy that followed. Native states in North America, had such existed, or rival colonies, might have frustrated Milton's anticipations. And even supposing all fulfilled that he anticipated, and that Providence had, as he prays, "staid us in that felicity," still the vision that transported him was infinitely less magnificent than the reality which we see. In that vision there was no Australia, no New Zealand, no South Africa, and nothing like the Dominion of Canada. If at the same time he did not foresee the calamity which was to rend from the Realm New England and Virginia, it is also likely that he had no conception of the uninterrupted expansion of the English name and of the language of his own "Paradise Lost" from the Atlantic to the Pacific Coast, and from the Gulf of Mexico to Hudson's Bay.

Or again supposing all restraints upon expansion removed, supposing a boundless territory thrown open to the English race, Spain was there to prove to Milton that the race might be incapable of expansion. Spain too had in Central and Southern America a boundless field, but she could find neither population to fill it, nor products of domestic industry to exchange against its products.

There were so many adverse possibilities. But we not only escaped them, we not only were "staid in that felicity," but were favoured with a new felicity of the same kind, and on the largest scale. First the continent on the coast of which we had settled proved to be in its chief part almost empty, peopled so thinly and by tribes so little organised, that no impediment was offered to the most unrestrained immigration. We had to contend indeed with

European rivals in colonisation, and the struggle with Holland was at one time severe; but our naval power [illegible] itself in an unexpected manner, so that the contest was de[cided] our favour. France was driven from North America a[nd] India; Holland from South Africa, while both Powers reduced to a position of inferiority in the West Indian Isl[ands]. And then a new Southern continent, which the Dutch had b[een] the first to explore, and the magnificent islands which still bear th[e] Dutch name of New Zealand, fell into the hands neither of Dutchmen nor Frenchmen, but of Englishmen. These vast territories again were found but thinly peopled by tribes all barbarous, and in part even savage; here again therefore land in unlimited amount was placed at the disposal of our people.

And all this happened to a nation not incapable, like Spain, of industry, but highly industrial, not devoid of domestic products, but rich in them. Accordingly, while the Realm grew in extent, it grew proportionally in wealth and commercial activity. It grew also in population, and thus, at the present day, it offers a strange spectacle; at the heart of it is a dense population clamouring for land, and all around is boundless land clamouring for population.

This abundance, on the one side, of land, on the other side, of population, has led, mainly in the present century, to a great increase in the scale of colonisation. In other periods there has either been wanting land to receive emigration, or else—this was the case for a long time after the discovery of the New World—emigrants were wanting. Thus though North America was known and occasionally explored during the sixteenth century, yet the settlement of it was scarcely commenced till the seventeenth century. The settlement of South Africa remained insignificant three centuries after the discovery of the Cape. The existence of the Australian continent (la grande Jave) was early known; it was visited by Tasman in the first half of the seventeenth century and yet the very first step towards the settlement of it was not taken till near the end of the eighteenth.

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the New World seems to have interested the Europeans only so far as it contained riches, gold or silver or spices, or else as a refuge against religious exclusiveness, a sanctuary for French Huguenots or English Puritans. "We plant tobacco and Puritanism only, *like fools*," says

r of 1638. The idea that it was an infinite landed ich might be divided among the poor, and which pport millions of settlers in prosperity and peace, that territory for new nations and states, seems not to have the European mind.

w, at last, our own times witness a constructive work such as never seen before, new communities establishing themselves, growth of new cities, the reclamation of vast tracts from wilderss, the organisation of new states and federations, the inauguran of new governments, the convocation of parliaments, *jura magistratusque legunt, sanctumque senatum.*

But there is yet more. These new communities seem, at a first glance, to be comparable, perhaps, to England or France. Clearly, they are not inferior in extent of territory. The colonial part of our own realm is sixty-six times as large as the mother country. In population it must remain inferior for a time, but population grows very fast when the natural increment of a thriving community is pplemented by a steady immigration, an immigration which will rhaps grow more rapid than it is at present. The time then is rtainly not far distant when of these new states, some of which are f yesterday, many will equal the European states, which they will urpass in natural wealth and equally diffused prosperity. But it s further to be considered that this Victorian age, this age of new states, has been also the age of railways and telegraphs. We are beginning to see the political working of these inventions, which is likely to be incalculable. Just as the difficulty of communication checked the growth of states in the Middle Ages, so the unprecedented facility of communication which our age enjoys seems to be creating a new type of state. It does not seem likely that the new continents which are now being peopled by our emigrants will repeat the political geography of Europe. We shall not see in the New World independent communities occupying each a territory of about a hundred thousand square miles, but divided from each other by language and waging frequent war upon each other. The ease of communication, joined to the predominance of the English language, will prevent this result. The type of the future state is shown in the United States, which has spanned a whole mighty continent from east to west, and has emphatically refused to submit to disintegration. On the other side of Europe, Russia is giving in very different circumstances

another proof of the capacity of the modern world
combination over vast spaces.

Within our Realm the same tendency has already
itself by the federation of the colonies of British North
which with the exception of Newfoundland have united
the Dominion of Canada. In Australia and in South
similar schemes have been agitated. It has been thought
some that federation of this kind will retard or prevent a m
comprehensive federation of the whole Realm, and on this grou
New Zealand has in a marked manner held aloof. In any ca
such schemes show, and the very opposition to them shows a
strongly, how active is the tendency to union, and how slight
the difficulties arising from space and distance are now felt to be
It seems then that these new communities will either remain in full
union with the mother country, in which case the United Realm
will become in time far greater than any political union the world
has known, or else we shall see not a number of states like those
of Europe, but a few states of the modern continental type.
gives a vivid notion of the vast magnitudes with which we deal
remark that in the latter case four continental states would com
into existence, of which three would be comparable rather
Europe as a whole than to a single European state.

The Dominion of Canada has an area of 3,470,392 square
miles.

The seven Australasian Colonies have an area of 3,173,340
square miles.

India, including the Native States, has an area of 1,383,50
square miles.

British South Africa has an area of 458,790 square miles.

So much for the magnitude of these territories, and when we
have admitted that India is almost wholly, and South Africa to
some extent, foreign in the race of its inhabitants, what remains a
the purely English Commonwealth utterly dwarfs all that the
prophetic imagination of Milton can have foreseen.

But are there no drawbacks? Does not experience lead us to
expect that in these great displacements of population evils will
creep in on a scale equally large, that in the founding of new
nations mistakes will be made, irretrievable mistakes, which prove,
since the effects of them grow as fast as the nation itself, the seed
of a long train of calamities and revolutions? Spanish colonisa-

on a vast scale, but it was accompanied, first, with extermination of the native races in the islands enslavement on the mainland, then with the African e and all the evils which sprang out of it. The total een in the present state of South America, and it is a ot to be regarded with satisfaction or complacency. Similar kes were made only too evidently in the earlier times of our colonisation, mistakes for which we have paid dearly. But the more manifest and glaring of these at least have been paired, and the shadow of them does not now darken the prospect the colonies.

The only trace now remaining in the English dominion of negro-slavery is that a negro population is to be found in our West Indian Islands. It is a significant trace, a memento of the special dangers to which Colonial industry is exposed. Nevertheless, the English Realm is now free from slavery; that great disease of the nfancy of communities which was a kind of incubus upon the Empire throughout the eighteenth century.

In the treatment of native races we have assuredly nothing to boast of. The Tasmanians have disappeared, the Maori tribes have dwindled from some hundreds of thousands to a few tens of thousands. We have not found the secret of imparting the blessings without the drawbacks, or the blessings more than the drawbacks, of civilisation. But if the question is only of the future of our colonies, it must be admitted that, owing chiefly to ne original emptiness of the territory, they are hampered less than most colonies by the mixture of races in a widely different stage of civilisation. All the embarrassments and dangers that may spring from this cause are spared to these rising states.

We have also corrected another great mistake which was made t the outset. As was remarked, we thought of trade and commerce in our early colonisation, not of founding new communities; e thought of tobacco and logwood and codfish and slaves, not of new majesties of mighty states" or of a paradise for the poor. It an old story that an Attorney-General in the reign of William nd Mary, being applied to in favour of a college which it was proposed to found in Virginia, and being invited to reflect that the people of Virginia had souls to be saved as well as the people of England, answered, "Souls! damn your souls! Make tobacco." The spirit here displayed certainly breathes in much of the

literature of those times. In 1676 the Musco[illegible] suggested* to the government of Charles II. that "t[illegible] of Russia hath continual wars with the Turks and Ta[illegible] thereby brings great numbers of prisoners from those p[illegible] may be bought at reasonable rates, as well men as wom[illegible] thirty years of age, to supply the defect of Moors in your M[illegible] plantations, they being a strong and hardy people, able to e[illegible] labour." The *British Merchant*, published in 1713, advoc[illegible] religious toleration in the following strain: "We are sure [illegible] the absolute freedom of conscience in Holland has robbed us [illegible] great numbers of people who, if they were now in England, mu[illegible] pay a very great price for house-room, product and manufacture[illegible] With every subject the nation will lose £6 10*s.* *per annum*, with[illegible] every hundred thousand £650,000 *per annum*." Nay, more than a[illegible] hundred years later a governor of New Zealand writes, in arguing[illegible] against a war with the Maoris: "In the case of each individua[illegible] who fell in such a conflict, it might have been said that from his[illegible] ignorance a man had been destroyed, whom a few months[illegible] enlightenment would have rendered a good subject, *a valuable[illegible] consumer of British manufactured goods, and a contributor to the[illegible] revenue*." He adds, "The loss to Great Britain by engaging in an[illegible] unnecessary war would also have been great; *every hundred[illegible] soldiers that had fallen must have cost at least* £10,000."†

This undisguised materialism, not perhaps worse in the English[illegible] than in other colonising nations, but more bluntly expressed, pro[illegible] cured us in the eighteenth century our reputation as the modern[illegible] Carthage. More perhaps than any other cause it led to the dis-[illegible] ruption of the English world by the secession of the American[illegible] colonies. For so long as they were regarded purely as an[illegible] instrument for increasing the wealth of the mother country, they[illegible] were subjected to unjust restrictions of trade, and in other respects[illegible] treated with such brutal coldness that the link between us would[illegible] not bear the strain of Grenville's financial policy.

This mistake also has been corrected. This way of thinkin[illegible] about colonies has been utterly renounced. The sordid system o[illegible] the century when England was the great slave-trading Power, an[illegible] when her American colonies seceded from her, was abandoned in[illegible] the first years of the present reign. Colonies were henceforth n[illegible]

* From a paper in the Record Office.

† Grey, *Colonial Policy*, ii. 123.

ded by the secession of the American colonies. By that tastrophe the principal results of a century and a half of colonisation were cancelled for England. What Raleigh planned, what mith, and the crew of the *Mayflower*, and Calvert, and Penn, and glethorpe created, was lost to us. But the colonising power and habit and the maritime ascendancy, which had been formed during that period, were not lost, and we threw off with our old colonies most of the evils of the old colonial system. At the same time we learnt an invaluable lesson. And while we were losing most of our share in the discovery of Columbus, a new Columbus, Captain James Cook, was surveying the ground for a new British Empire in the Southern hemisphere. In the first period we distinguish several phases.

First there is the period of Elizabeth and Drake and Hawkins, of the voyages related in Hakluyt, of the Spanish Armada. In this we have as yet no Empire and no wide commerce, but all that has been since developed is visible in germ. The great navy and the great merchant fleet, not yet distinguished, are to be recognised in those rude buccaneering expeditions. The Empire already exists in Raleigh's mind. Shakespeare's imagination broods over it in the *Tempest;* he shows by his Caliban that he has been thinking over the question of slavery.

Three things grow up in the course of the seventeenth century—the colonial trade, the navy, the empire. England follows the lead of Holland, and copies Dutch institutions; now adopts for a while her republican form, now imitates her trading companies, her bank, her public debt, and ends by borrowing her Stadtholder, forming a close alliance with her, and accepting her principle of religious toleration for the sake of trade. But with imitation goes rivalry, and sometimes war; and even the close embrace in which under William and Anne the two states were locked, was fatal to the weaker. It is under the Commonwealth and under Charles II. that the maritime growth of England is most visible. Blake founds our naval greatness, the Protector strikes a heavy blow at the very heart of Spanish power in Jamaica, New York is acquired, Carolina and Pennsylvania are founded, Bombay passes into English hands.

As the result of all this, foreign trade has become by the end of the seventeenth century the greatest of English interests, and in the eyes of Europe England begins to eclipse all the trading states past history. But at the same epoch France, guided by

Colbert, enters into the competition, and threatens to surpass even England. "The French," says the *British Merchant*, "who sixty years ago had never made any tolerable figure in traffic, seem now, especially since their nearer intimacy with Spain, to be next s the greatest trading nation in Europe; and as they know est of any people how to improve their advantages, 'tis to be they will outdo even us, if we are not very cautious what we at any time take with them in relation to so nice a This intimacy of Spain with our rising commercial rival, begins with the accession of the Bourbon House in Spain opening of the eighteenth century. The struggle of rcial and maritime England against this coalition of France ain fills the eighteenth century, and is only terminated by f Napoleon. Marlborough's war was waged in order to hat coalition, which threatened to throw all the trade of World into the hands of France.

what our fathers called trade was really dominion; the e might be nominally for the products of the New World, lly it was for the possession of vast continents, which eemed important only to merchants, but are now the nce of the English nation. It was for an unbounded on that we struggled in the eighteenth century against aided by Spain. For in spite of Marlborough's victories lition was suffered to take place, and in 1739 the great e began. Two wars were waged between 1739 and 1762, he first we fought at the outset against Spain, but after a time in was joined by France; in the second France was our st opponent, who after a time was joined by Spain. The wo wars were divided by a hollow and imperfect peace of eight ears.

Upon this great contest we entered seemingly with little prospect of success. The nation indeed was sanguine, but those who knew, what was hidden from the nation, how close was the concert of France and Spain, were despondent. And as the struggle went on, our prospects for a long time darkened rather than brightened. Our old alliances failed us. In the first war we were utterly disappointed in the expectation we had formed of Holland, and at the opening of the second war, Austria actually went over to the French alliance. So great was the despair of our statesmen as late as 1757, that the most daring of English

inisters, the elder Pitt, found himself driven to buy off the ostility of Spain by the offer of Gibraltar.

But a sudden and surprising change took place. The period from 1757 to 1763 is in some respects the most triumphant in our history, and it is the decisive stage in the development of Empire. Our rival France suffered defeat in the quarters in v she had opposed us most menacingly, in Canada and in Spain at the same time ceded to us Florida. This was the m when the nation began to perceive that in fighting for trade th acquired a boundless dominion. For on the one side the ex of the foreigner from Canada and Florida left the Engli supreme in the whole of North America, where a short time they had cowered timidly behind the Alleghanies. On th side in India the war of the two trading nations took a s unexpected turn ; the Empire of the peninsula itself, owi decay of the Mogul government, began to fall into the h the Europeans ; it was tossed to and fro between Fran England ; our victory over France gave us the ascendancy Deccan as well as in Canada, and at the same time we l rulers in Bengal and Bahar.

Pitt, Wolfe, and Clive gave us a new idea of ourselves a vocation. We began to regard ourselves as the Romans modern world. The old tale of Queen Boadicea, insu our island by the Roman conqueror, acquires a new sign in English poetry. Was some Druid prophet enough to c her by foretelling that "her posterity should sway regions Ca never knew, and where his eagles never flew?"

The names of Wolfe and Clive, of Plassey and the Heights Abraham, make us think of victorious armies, and a poet migh not unnaturally commit the error of comparing the rising British Dominion to the Roman. But the great Realm we now see is by n means really an Empire, and it has been created in a very slight degree by conquest. The army of Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham did not amount to 5,000 men ; the armies that have conquered India have consisted in the main of native troops. Had we depended on armies either in winning our New World Realm from the House of Bourbon or in defending it against Napoleon, we should have been forced to make ourselves a military state. Yet in occupying and maintaining these vast territories we have never needed such armies ance and Germany have kept on foot mainly for European

interests. The truth is, we have depended on our navy. It ... been enough for us that we controlled the sea. This maritime supremacy, acquired for us in the time of Anson and Hawke, enabled us both to found our Realm and to hold it against Napoleon. It enabled us to isolate the colonies of other European states, and to prevent the vast European armies from operating in the New World.

George III. succeeded to a throne which relatively was greater than that of Queen Victoria. But the disruption of that dominion speedily followed. This was a consequence only too natural of the old materialist view of colonial affairs, which refused to give way to the higher and grander view now opening before the nation. We had seen on the other side of the Atlantic only tobacco and fisheries and sugar, not English communities; and of those communities a large proportion were not so much emigrants as refugees—they had been driven out rather than sent out. We now found that colonies from which we had expected wealth had cost us vast expense by the obligation of defending them, and we tried to recover it from them by taxation. The claim was not unreasonable in the abstract, but it brought to light the alienation that had been caused by long neglect and coldness. The fabric of materialism crumbled away. By the treaty of 1783 we signed away the ...een colonies which made the principal part of our Empire, ...gh they are but a small part of the present United States. ... the next period our colonial dominion is for a time almost ...significant, though the conquest of India proceeded. We had ...maica and many West Indian Islands; we had the eastern part of ...hat which is now called the Dominion of Canada, but this ...erritory was for the most part nearly empty, its few inhabitants were French, and Quebec and Montreal might seem likely to be recovered by France with the help of her ally, the United States. We had scarcely yet entered the Southern hemisphere. The Cape was in the hands of the Dutch; Australia, newly explored by Captain Cook, only began in 1788 to receive a few convicts. Meanwhile the tendency to disruption did not seem likely to stop ...t the American colonies, for even before the peace of 1783 it had ...reached Ireland.

But the naval supremacy which before had given us the advantage in colonisation now rose to its height. In the Napoleonic wars this withstood all the attacks of France and of confederat...

Europe. The failure of Bonaparte's Egyptian Expedition, his loss of Malta, and the whole career of Nelson, proved the solidity of it. And during these wars a new Realm began to replace that which had been lost. Holland, the great ally of England in the time of William and Marlborough, had left the English Alliance after the war of 1739–1748, and had appeared among her enemies in that of 1778–1783. Almost throughout the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars she goes with France. Consequently her colonial settlements were now at our mercy. This was the case also with Spain. Hence Demerara, Trinidad, the Cape of Good Hope, and Ceylon became English possessions. From France at the same time we took Mauritius and Malta.

It is possible that Pitt, when he founded the convict settlement of Botany Bay in 1788, was not unmindful of the vast growth that might issue from that minute germ.

But during the revolutionary period, though so many germs were deposited and so many territories annexed, we had a settled dominion in the West Indian Islands almost alone. This is our West Indian period. It is consequently the period of the slavery controversy. We abolished the slave trade in 1808 and emancipated all slaves in the Empire in 1833. That these reforms could be carried was some indirect compensation for the loss of the American colonies. The disruption of the Realm broke the same time the slave-owning interest. Confined almost to West Indian Islands, slavery could be grappled with; who knows whether Clarkson and Wilberforce and Buxton would have prevailed, if they had had to fight with Virginia and the Carolinas as well as with Jamaica?

After the peace of 1815 begins the period of steady emigration from Europe, and especially from Britain, to the New World. In 1815, scarcely more than two thousand persons emigrated from the United Kingdom. But in 1819 the number of emigrants was already nearly thirty-five thousand, and in 1882 it exceeded four hundred thousand. It is involved in this that the New World is now regarded not merely as a field for trade, but as the home of new nations or, as I have said, the paradise of the poor. The period when this view decisively prevailed, the last period of our rapid survey, begins roughly with the beginning of the present reign. There had been a new settlement in South Africa in 1820; Western Australia had been founded in 1829; South Australia

k place when the Corn Laws a re repealed. The old coloni nd the materialism which in ol nping the colonies now fell into a ask, "What is the good of colonies?" w nations, our colonies received in the es constitutions and an almost unlimited right of self-govern-nt, New South Wales in 1855, New Zealand in 1852, Queens-nd in 1859, South Australia in 1856, Tasmania in 1855, Victoria 1854, Cape Colony in 1853, Natal in 1856. This last period has so been marked by the most astonishing increase. The vast sland-continent of Australia and the beautiful islands of New Zealand now become prominent, colonisation being hastened by the discovery of gold near Port Phillip in 1850. This newest world, in extent about equal to Europe, is at once the most English, and the most modern, and the most prosperous part of the realm. It may be said never to have known the abuses of the old colonial system, and it has never known slavery. During the same period, Canada, which in the first years of the Queen was convulsed by bellion, has given its name to a vast dominion which extends om the Atlantic to the Pacific. In like manner, when now we peak of the Cape, we mean all the southern shores of Africa now nder the sovereignty or protection of the English Crown.

These new states sprang up at first somewhat accidentally on basis of the old settlements. When they acquired conscious-s and began to look about them in the freshness of youth, they re not always satisfied with this basis. They felt the contempt space and distance which marks the age of railways and graphs. They began to federate, and to take the form of tinental states. Canada set the example of this innovation in 7, and to the political link has since been added a railway from ne ocean to the other, upon which the seven provinces are readed. Australia, which has already been spanned from south north by the telegraph, seems on the point of following the xample of Canada.

When the mother country resigned her rights over the colonies, was but reasonable that she should withdraw from some of her bligations. In that old eighteenth-century Realm the defence of ne colonies was mainly thrown upon local militias, as indeed those days an English army in the modern sense did not yet e

ouisburg was taken by the Ne
s as an officer of colonial militia
history. This system has been g
period. The revival may have bee
but it was not in itself unreasona
particular statesmen an opportunity
they set upon the colonies, but at least it was no mark of coldn
on the part of the mother country. The Dominion of Canada h
now a militia force exceeding 600,000 men.

These great English continental states stand now side by si
with the mother country, which has no longer either any desire
any interest to control their internal progress. This is not th
place to inquire what her future relations with them will be or
ought to be. To the individual Englishman visiting the Colonial
and Indian Exhibition the most important reflexion is that
throughout these vast continents wherever he may wander he is at
home, almost as much at home as between the hedge-rows of an
English lane. Everywhere he will find the same language, the
same institutions, the same beliefs, the same books. The English
society is everywhere, and nowhere can he feel himself in a
degree an exile. Not only are the people the same, but no schis
has ever taken place; there is no tradition, as in the United State
of past wars with England; nor must the settler, as in the Unite
States—somewhat unnecessarily—renounce his allegiance to th
Queen of England.

Goethe exhorted his countrymen not to remain rooted in
soil, but to wander briskly about the globe, and he added
philosophical reflexion that a good head and a strong arm
"everywhere at home." But this is somewhat too philosophica
the average of men. After all we are not at home where
language is foreign, and the worship strange, and the usages
congenial. But in these vast continents the Englishman is real
at home, literally at home, and if we put "realm" for "world," w
may address him in the lines of Goethe and say—

> "To give space for wandering was it
> That the Realm was made so wide."

How slowly in an ancient country the fixed conceptions
he people give way to new facts! Who would gather from ou
itual language that boundless territories are waiting to be

divided among the English poor, and that these territories are no in some foreign land, so that the occupants must sacrifice their country and their country must sacrifice them, but actually in land which is English, nay in great part of which no trace remains of any other nation? When we speak of over-population, of exhaustion, of the decrepitude of an old country, is it not evident that the framework of our thoughts is always the British Isles, that the Straits of Dover and the narrow seas limit our views? Should we not otherwise say that England is for the most part very thinly peopled and very imperfectly developed, a young country, with millions of acres of virgin soil and mineral wealth as yet but half explored, that it has abundant room for all Englishmen, and can find homesteads for them all, for the most part in a congenial climate and out of the reach of enemies?

Only one other reflexion that the visitor can make is of nearly equal importance. He should consider that this great English exodus has not been similar to barbaric migrations. Goths and Vandals, still more probably the primitive Aryan immigrants into Europe, could afford to forget what they left behind. The land they occupied furnished enough for them; they had no occasion to look back, or to look abroad. These new English communities live under quite other economical conditions. Their vast wealth is not given them only or mainly in products which they consume themselves, but in products which they exchange, in raw materials with which they buy the manufactures of Europe. It depends therefore on a distant market. They are not self-contained, they are limbs, the life of which depends on a heart and a brain outside themselves. Anything which should deprive them of this market, which should close the sea or the harbours of the importing countries against their products, would destroy their prosperity. Moreover, their mother country (unlike Spain, which even under the old colonial system could not meet the wants of her colonies) remains the economic centre of the English realm. The market is here, the carrying trade is mainly in our hands, and so is the control of the water way. Does any danger threaten our communications? Could any enemy sever the vital connection? Perhaps long security has caused us to be too little awake to this possibility. No serious attack of the kind has been made upon us since France and Spain came to help the insurgent colonists. During the great war our dominion was comparati

nall, colonial trade comparatively insignificant, and our maritime supremacy just then reached its height; nevertheless the French gave us much trouble in the Indian seas so long as they retained Mauritius. Circumstances are now greatly changed. We have become more assailable over all the seas, as it is acknowledged that we are more assailable in the Channel, through the introduction of steam. The wooden fleets that Napoleon gathered against us and the "wooden walls" that resisted him are gone, and in the last thirty years we have striven to compensate by increased military force for diminished naval security in the Channel. We have been anxious about invasion. But what we have to defend is not the *country*, but the *realm*; the weakness against which we have to guard is not the Channel only, but over the whole ocean. And our vital interests are now as widely diffused as our weakness, vital interests at once of the colonies and of the mother country. The colonies produce for the English market, the English live in great part on food that comes to them over the sea, and they live by manufacturing colonial and New World products. This mutual dependence of the two parts of the Realm is in a great measure of recent growth, and it grows every year more intimate and absolute. It is not so much invasion that we have to dread, it is rather some stroke that might damage that vital, sensitive network that covers the ocean, making one economic organism of the whole Realm.

The visitor therefore should consider that however widely Englishmen are scattered through these vast colonies, they have not really become strangers to each other, they are united not only by blood language and traditions, but also by one supreme interest, that guarding their trade and their oceanic communications.

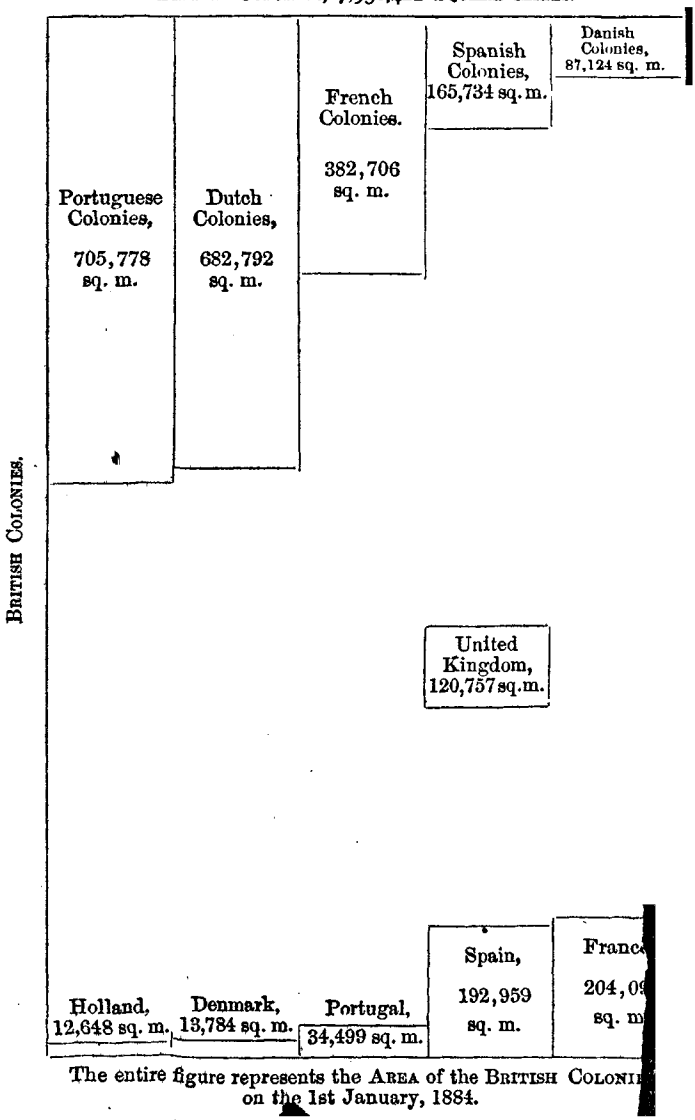
It is perhaps not unnatural that, during past centuries, when our nation was really on the whole contained in these islands, we should have formed the habit of identifying the nation with the country. We speak habitually of "the good of the country," "the wishes of the country," "what the country thinks," "what the country expects." Nor is this a mere phrase, for again and again we may detect ourselves in actually reasoning on the assumption that the community to which we belong has narrow material frontiers and is limited by the narrow seas. The great moral which the Colonial and Indian Exhibition should teach is that this

te assumption has now utterly lost all its old plausibility, England now is a realm 8,000,000 square miles in extent, so young and in so early a stage of its development that ater part of it is not yet peopled, a realm which will yet much organisation, many new institutions, but which has urnished by nature with an incomparable road-system ing together the principal countries which compose it, viz.,

Extracted, by permission, from the Address to the St[illegible] Society delivered at the opening of the Winter Session, [illegible] Sir Rawson W. Rawson, K.C.M.G., C.B., then President [illegible] Society.

A.—AREA.

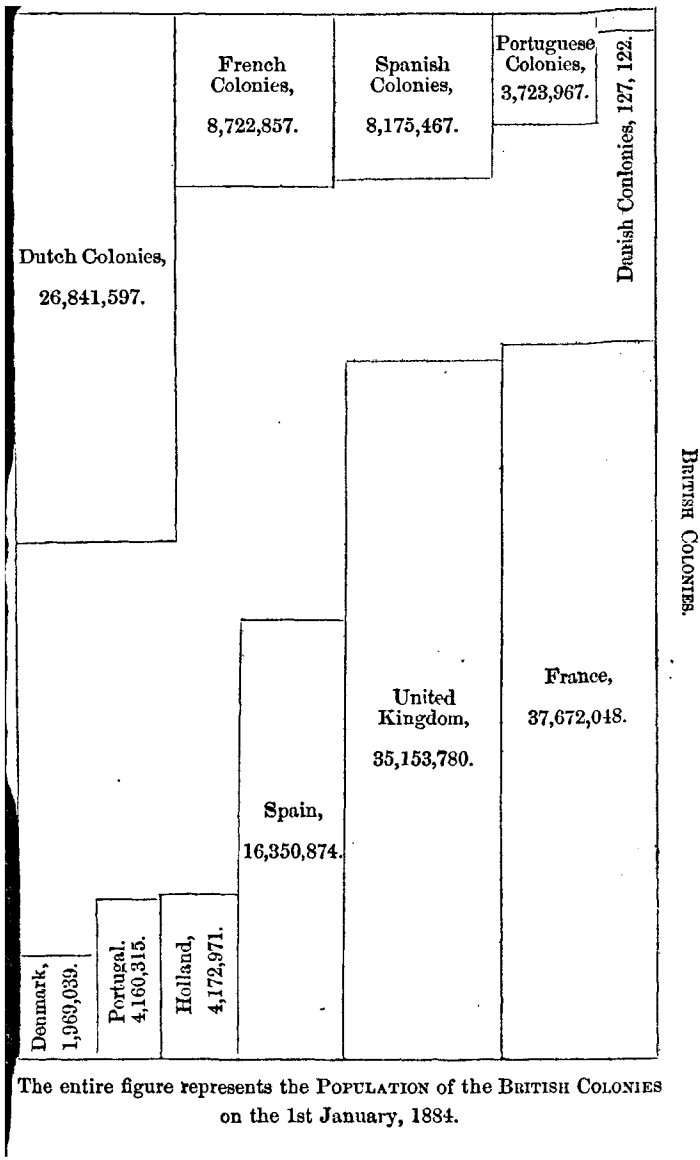
Comparison of Countries and Colonies, to scale.


British Colonies, 7,938,422 Square Miles.
British Colonies.
Portuguese Colonies, 705,778 sq. m.
Dutch Colonies, 682,792 sq. m.
French Colonies. 382,706 sq. m.
Spanish Colonies, 165,734 sq. m.
Danish Colonies, 87,124 sq. m.
United Kingdom, 120,757 sq. m.
Holland, 12,648 sq. m.
Denmark, 13,784 sq. m.
Portugal, 34,499 sq. m.
Spain, 192,959 sq. m.
France, 204,09[illegible] sq. m.

The entire figure represents the Area of the British Colonie[illegible] on the 1st January, 1884.

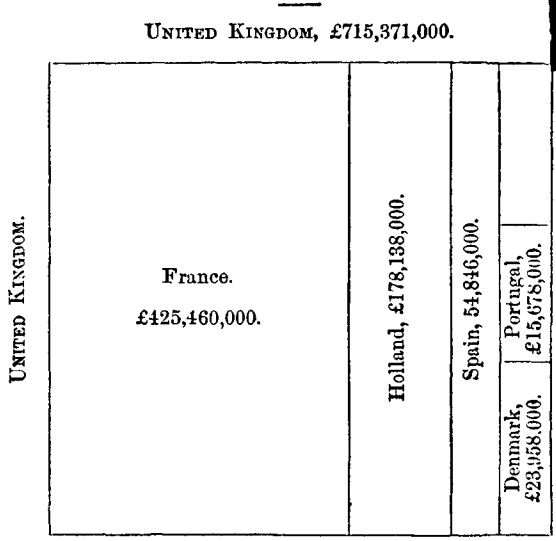
B.—POPULATION.

Comparison of Countries and Colonies, to scale.



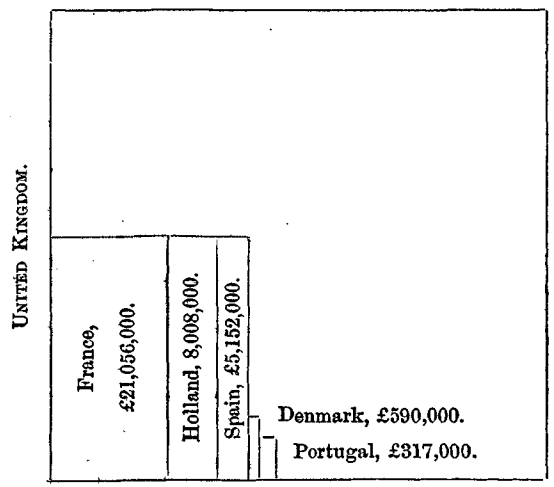
The entire figure represents the Population of the British Colonies on the 1st January, 1884.

C.—GENERAL TRADE, IMPORTS AND EXPO



The entire figure represents the Total General Trade of the United Kingdom.

D.—TRADE OF EACH COUNTRY WITH ITS COLONIES



The entire figure represents the Trade of the United Kingdom with its Colonies, founded on the average of the three years 1881–3.

DIAGRAM *shewing the respective Values of British and Irish Produce Exported during the years 1874 and 1884 to British Possessions beyond the limits of Europe and to all Foreign Countries.*

Nº1.

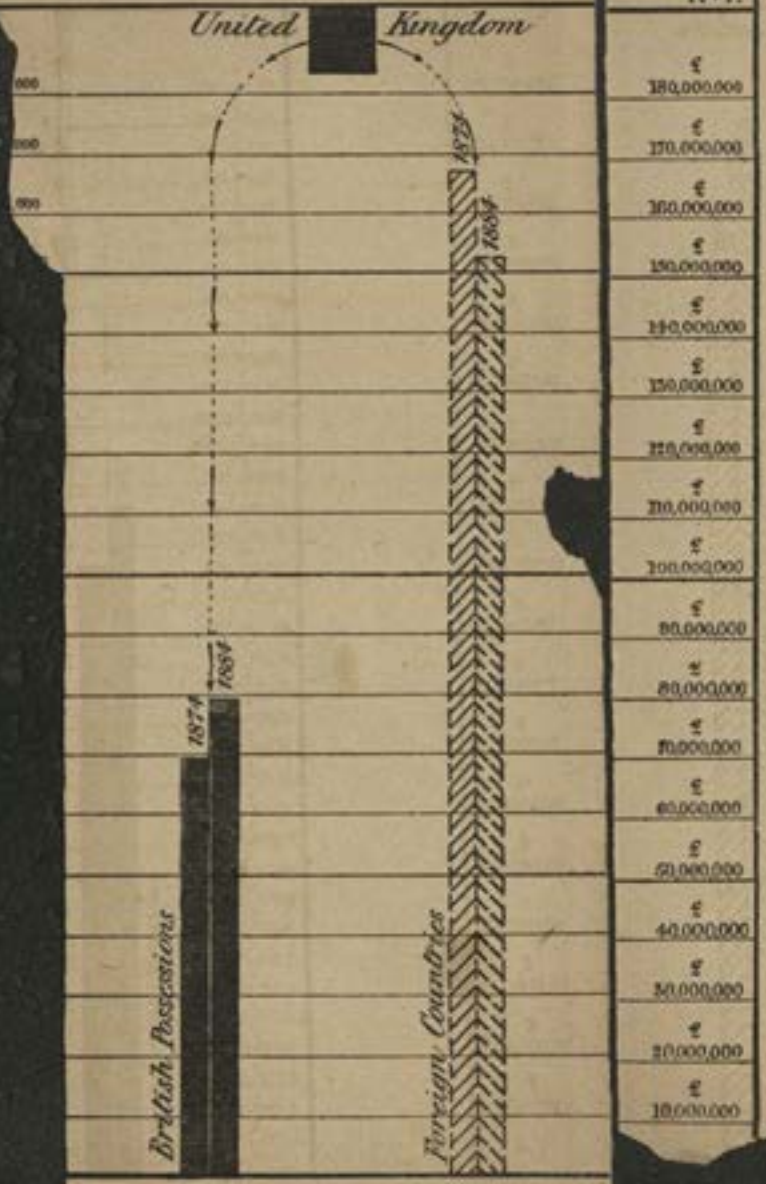
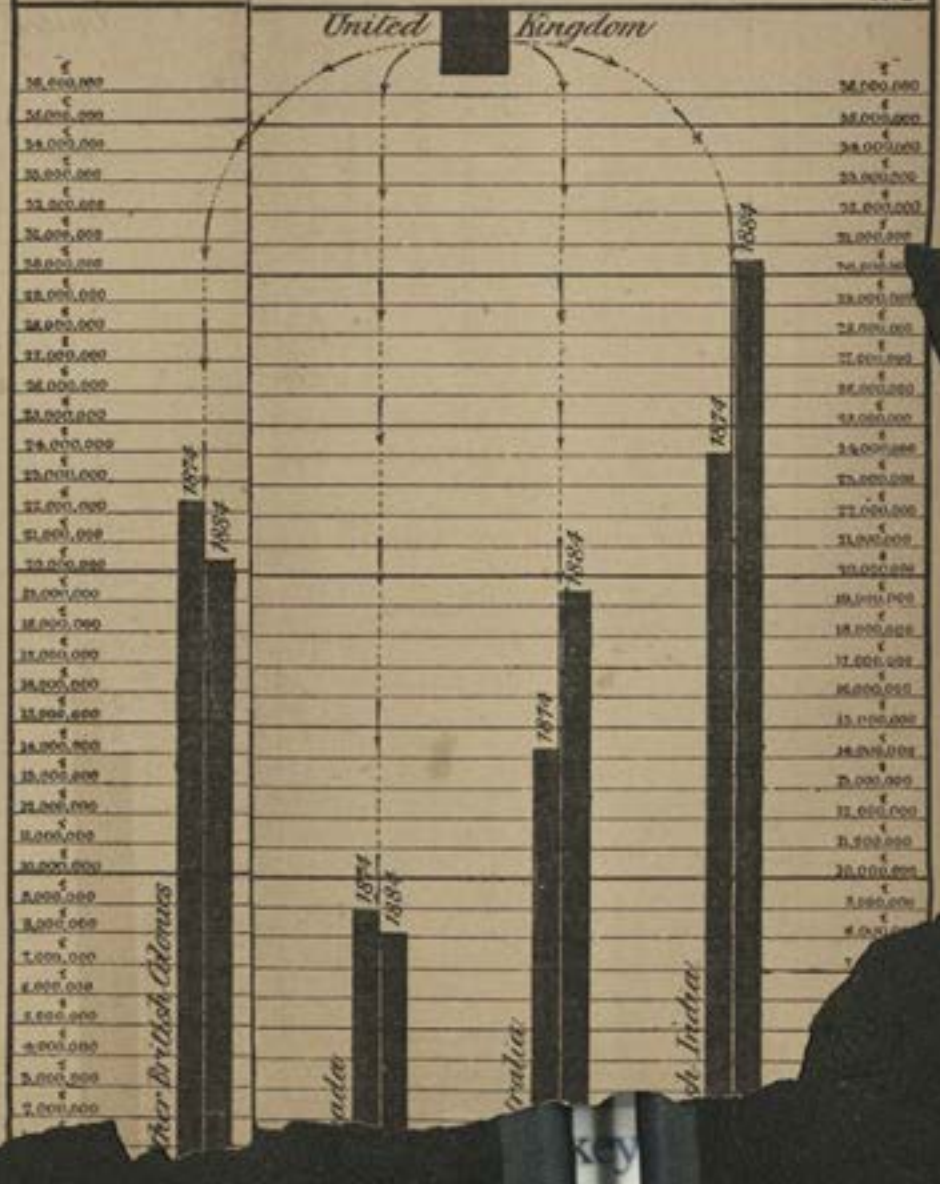


DIAGRAM *shewing the respective Values of British and Irish Produce Exported during the years 1874 and 1884 to British India, Australia, Canada, and all other British Colonies beyond the limits of Europe.*

Nº2



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April 28th, 1886.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

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I.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA & NEWFOUNDLAND.

ARCTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Baffin Bay
Davis Strait
Hudson Bay
Hudson Str.
GREENLAND
Danish America
ICELAND
ALASKA
(UNITED STATES)
NORTH WEST TERRITORY
DOMINION of CANADA
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
MANITOBA
ASSINIBOIA
SASKATCHEWAN
ALBERTA
COLUMBIA
ATHABASCA
KEEWATIN
LABRADOR
NEWFOUNDLAND
St. Johns
Halifax
Montreal
Ottawa
Toronto
Quebec
Winnipeg
Portland
Boston
Buffalo
Detroit
Chicago
Duluth
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Milwaukee
Cleveland
Pittsburg
NEW YORK
NEW JERSEY
OREGON
IDAHO
DAKOTA
NEBRASKA
NEVADA
Victoria
Vancouver I.
Port Simpson
Fort Simpson
Fort Resolution
Fort Rae
Fort Anderson
Fort Yukon
Fort Norman
Fort Liard
Fort Providence
Fort Smith
Fort Chipewyan
Fort Vermilion
Fort Simpson
Fort Macpherson
Fort Good Hope
Fort Wrigley
Fort Selkirk
Fort Pelly
Fort Ellice
Fort Qu'Appelle
Fort Pitt
Fort Carlton
Fort Edmonton
Fort Assiniboia
Fort Garry
Fort Alexander
Fort Rupert
Fort Hope
Fort Frances
Fort Simpson
Fort Wrangel
Fort Yukon
Fort Selkirk
Fort Macpherson
Fort Good Hope
Fort Wrigley
Fort Liard
Fort Providence
Fort Smith
Fort Chipewyan
Fort Vermilion
Fort Simpson
Fort Norman
Fort Anderson

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

CHAPTER I.

SITUATION, AREA, AND POPULATION.

THE Dominion of Canada,* vaster in extent than any other of our Colonial dependencies, within comparatively easy reach of England, and composed in part of territories which are amongst the earliest fields of English exploration and settlement, is unsurpassed in national interest, and its general features should be more familiar than those of any other colony to dwellers in the mother country, many of whom, however, have but a vague idea of its historical interest and political importance, or even of its geographical extent.

Twenty years ago the British colony then known as Canada, Upper and Lower, consisted of a territory extending about 1,400 miles from east to west (from Labrador to the western borders of Lake Superior), and from 200 to 400 miles from north to south. Adjacent thereto on the east were the British provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and the island of Newfoundland, whilst beyond it to the north and west lay the vast regions formerly in the hands of the Hudson's Bay Company. But in the year 1867 the British North America Act consolidated into one political Confederation, under the name of the Dominion of Canada, the old provinces of Upper and Lower Canada (now respectively called the provinces of Ontario and Quebec), of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; and Manitoba (in 1870), British Columbia (in 1871), and Prince Edward Island (in 1873), have since been admitted to the Confederation. So that the Dominion now extends across the entire continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific, a distance of about 4,000 miles, and covers an area of upwards of 3,610,000 square miles, tenfold the area known as Canada prior to the Act of Confederation, thus absorbing the northern half of North America, with the exception of the United States territory of Alaska (577,390 square miles), at its north-western extremity.

The land area of the several provinces, and of the North-West Territories, is as follows :—

Provinces.	*Area.*
Prince Edward Island	2,133 sq. miles.
Nova Scotia	20,907 ,,
New Brunswick	27,174 ,,
Quebec	188,688 ,,
Ontario	181,800 ,,
Manitoba	123,200 ,,
British Columbia	341,305 ,,
The Territories	2,585,000 ,,
Great Lakes, Rivers, &c., not included in the above areas, about	140,000 ,,
Total area	3,610,207 sq. miles.

* "Canada," says Dr. Withrow, "is the Indian word for a collection of huts."

The island of Newfoundland (area, 40,200 square miles) has not yet been admitted to the Confederation, but, as an independent British province, should of course be included in an enumeration of our North American possessions, and will be dealt with in a separate chapter.

It will perhaps give the general reader a clearer idea of the vast extent of the Dominion of Canada, if we compare it with a territory familiar to all—the mother country itself. The area of Great Britain and Ireland is 121,115 square miles, so that the Dominion is nearly thirty times as extensive as the whole of the United Kingdom, whilst it does not contain one-eighth of the population; six hundred thousand square miles larger than the United States without Alaska, and about eighteen thousand square miles larger than both combined; and nearly as large as the whole of Europe exclusive of Great Britain and Ireland. The annexed diagram gives visible form to the comparison just drawn between the Dominion of Canada and the United Kingdom.

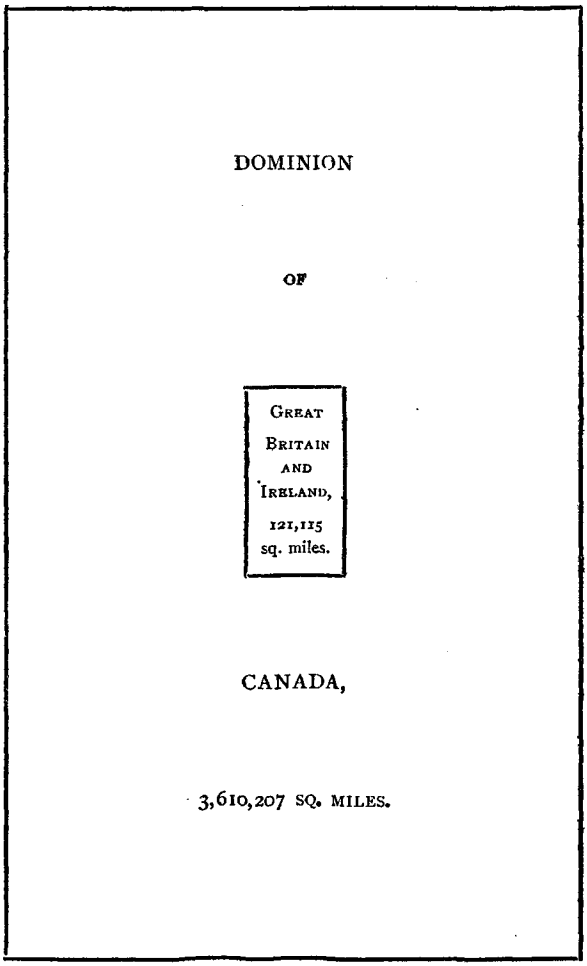
An attentive examination of the map will give the reader a better idea of the geographical features of the Dominion than can be conveyed by a written description. The abundant and general distribution of fresh water by means of rivers and lakes not only serves all the purposes necessary to successful colonisation, but is also of the utmost value by reason of its salutary effects on the climate. Besides the great lakes on the southern border of the province of Ontario, there are a vast number of lakes throughout the Dominion, and some of them, such as Lake Winnipeg, Reindeer and Wollaston Lakes, Lake Athabasca, the Great Slave Lake, and the Great Bear Lake, are very extensive indeed. Rivers are also abundantly numerous, the most important being the St. Lawrence, the Saskatchewan, the Mackenzie and the Fraser. The St. Lawrence affords an outlet for the group of lakes first mentioned, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario; the Saskatchewan takes its rise in the Rocky Mountains —a great range running north and south about 400 miles from the Pacific coast—and, with other tributaries, flows into Lake Winnipeg; the Mackenzie river flows northward from the Great Slave Lake until it reaches the Arctic Ocean near the north-western extremity of our territory. Lakes Erie and Ontario are connected by the river Niagara, which flows for a distance of fifteen miles with a fall of little more than a foot per mile; the fall then rapidly increases to about eighty feet per mile, and the mighty waters—unequally divided by Goat Island, but altogether spanning a width of about 800 yards—ultimately rush over the rocks of Niagara, falling a perpendicular depth of about 165 feet, and delivering, according to one estimate, some 1,500 millions cubic feet of water per minute into the channel below.

Of the total area of the Dominion a very large proportion is well suited for settlement and cultivation, a point which will receive consideration in due course. In 1881 the area in actual occupation amounted to 45,358,141 acres, of which 21,899,181 acres were improved, 15,112,284 acres being under crop, 6,385,562 acres pasture, and 401,335 acres gardens and orchards. And it is a noteworthy fact that of the entire population, no fewer than 403,491 persons, or about one in ten, were not only occupiers but owners of the lands they tilled.

The total population of the Dominion, according to the census of 1881, was 4,324,810, against 3,687,024 in 1871, with a preponderance of more

than 50,000 males in excess of females, an inequality attributed to immigration, and which it is hoped to reduce by attracting a larger influx of women. (See Appendix A.)

COMPARISON OF THE AREA OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA WITH THAT OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.



Of this population 478,235 were born in the British Isles and possessions, 1,467,988 in Ontario, 1,327,809 in Quebec, 420,088 in Nova Scotia, 288,265 in New Brunswick, 19,590 in Manitoba, 32,275 in British Columbia, 101,047 in Prince Edward Island, 58,430 in the North-West Territories, 77,753 in the United States, and 53,330 in other countries. (See Appendix B.)

The following table shows the proportional distribution in each province

of the total area and the total population, the number of persons to the square mile, the number of acres to each person, and the number of acres of unoccupied land to each person :—

Provinces.	Proportion per cent. to each province.		Persons to the sq. mile.	Acres to each Person.	Acres of Unoccupied Land to each Person.
	Acres.	Persons.			
Prince Edward Island . .	·06	2·51	51·0	12·5	2·2
Nova Scotia. . . .	·60	10·18	21·0	30·3	18·1
New Brunswick . . .	·78	7·42	11·8	54·1	42·2
Quebec	5·44	31·42	7·2	88·8	79·5
Ontario	2·93	44·47	18·9	33·8	23·8
Manitoba	3·55	1·52	·53	1,195·5	1,159·3
British Columbia . .	9·83	1·14	·14	4,456·9	4,409·5
The Territories . . .	76·80	1·30	·02	30,219·3	30,213·7
Total .	99·99	99·96	1·24	513·5	503·0

c

It will thus be seen how vast a field the Dominion affords, especially in Manitoba, British Columbia, and the North-West Territories, for the colonisation of the future.

Of the total population in 1881, more than half (·587) were of British origin (English, Welsh, Scotch, or Irish), almost exactly three-tenths were of French origin, and about one-fifteenth German or Dutch. In other words, of every 1,000 persons 587 were British, 300 French, and 65 Germans or Dutch; whilst of the remainder, 25 were native Indians, and the rest people of various nationalities. Of every 1,000, roughly speaking, 11 were actually born in the British Isles and possessions, 2 in the United States, 1 in other foreign countries, and the remainder were born in the Dominion itself. Further details on these points will be found in Appendix C.

In 1871 there were in Canada 20 cities and towns of 5,000 inhabitants and upwards, with a total population of 430,043. In 1881 the number had increased to 37, with a total population of 660,040, the number of inhabitants ranging from 5,032 to 140,747. Omitting the city of St. John, New Brunswick, where the disastrous fire of 1877 had the temporary effect of reducing the population (driven by the destruction of their homes into the surrounding district) from 28,805 to 26,127, and three towns (Hull, St. Henri, and Moncton) whose limits were not defined in 1871, the total increase in the remaining 33 places was 147,004, or nearly 30 per cent., during the ten years. (See Appendix C.) The greatest strides have been made at Winnipeg in Manitoba, which in 1871 contained a mere handful of persons, 241 in number, whilst in 1881 the population had increased to 7,985.

Supposing the general rate of increase throughout the Dominion during the decade 1871–1881 (17·3 per cent.) to have been since maintained, the total population may now be estimated at about 4,450,000 souls.

CHAPTER II.

EARLY DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION.

IT would be beyond the purpose of this paper to search amongst the fables of remote ages for the earliest traditions of what, in course of time, came to be known as the New World. The existence of a wondrous land beyond the great ocean, which, reaching from pole to pole, opposed for long centuries an impassable obstacle to the navigator, was something more than a dream in European countries, and as early as the ninth century a party of Norsemen found their way to Iceland and established a colony there, the thousandth anniversary of which was celebrated in 1874. In the course of the next century, Greenland (about 160 miles west of Iceland) was reached, and a settlement was established at Ericksfiord, on its western coast; shortly afterwards a Norse navigator named Herjulfson was driven by stress of weather within sight of Newfoundland or Labrador, and returned to Iceland with the news. This was followed a year or two later by further exploration along the eastern border of the American coast, and a company of five-and-thirty men wintered in what is now the State of Massachusetts; finding the wild grape there in abundance, they gave to the newly-discovered district the name of Vinland. During the next year Thorwald Erikson reached Vinland with a crew of thirty men, but was killed three years later, the first of the long list of victims who have fallen in the conflict between the redskins and the whites for the dominant power. Further attempts to colonise Vinland were made by the Icelander, Thorfinn Karlsefne, to whose adventurous expedition reference is supposed to be made in the runic inscription known as the Dighton rock inscription, still to be seen on a mass of granite, washed by every tide, on the bank of the Taunton River, Massachusetts. But these and several subsequent attempts of the same kind ended in failure, the colonists were ultimately expelled by the aborigines, and at the beginning of the fifteenth century even Greenland was abandoned, although it is stated that in 1406 that colony consisted of no fewer than 190 villages.

In the meantime the population of Scandinavian provinces had been decimated by the pestilence known as the Black Death, which, combined with the dangers and difficulties encountered by these early explorers to check the tendency to acquire and people distant lands in the west; and for a time no further effort in that direction was made, although in the closing years of the fourteenth century they had also been reached by a Venetian navigator named Nicolo Zeno.

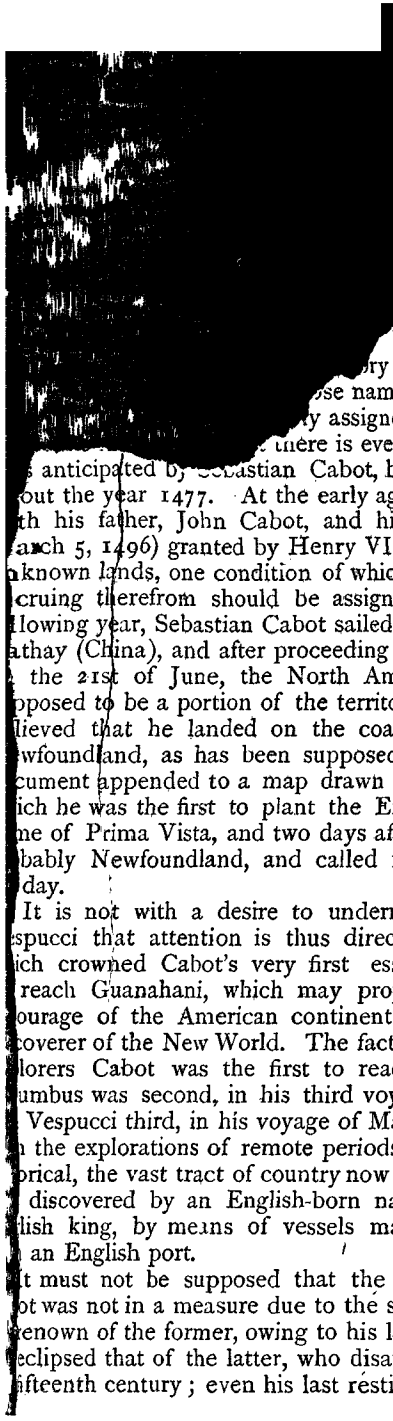
It was not, however, to be supposed that the spirit of discovery would long await a new awakening. A truer knowledge of the contour and size of the globe, advanced acquaintance with the science of astronomy and the use of the magnetic needle, and a restless desire to find a water-way to the East less tedious and perilous than the passage across the Syrian desert, led to renewed enterprise on the part of European navigators. In the meantime a young Genoese was imbibing at Pavia that taste for geometry, geography, and astronomy which was to make the name of Christopher Columbus famous through all time. Born in the middle of the fifteenth century, Columbus commenced his seafaring life at the age of

fourteen, and had scarcely attained to manhood ere he sailed northward as far as Iceland, and, indeed, a hundred leagues beyond it. Fired with the enthusiasm of the explorer, and with the traditional accounts of the still unknown lands beyond the western seas, he sought for many weary years the aid of the princes of Italy, Portugal, and Spain, spurned and ridiculed by bigoted opponents as a dreamer and an adventurer, or meeting only with treachery from those who desired to test, on their own account, the value of his convictions. At length, however, a more generous heart, and that of a woman, was touched by the fervency of his enthusiasm. Isabella of Castile, Queen Consort of Ferdinand V., warmly espoused his cause, and in order to overcome the monetary difficulty even offered hed personal jewels to defray the cost of the expedition.

With three small vessels, manned by a hundred and twenty men, some of whom were impressed into what was justly regarded as a perilous service, Columbus set sail from Saltes, near Palos, a point between the mouths of the Guadiana and Guadalquivir, on the 3rd of August, 1492. A damaged rudder and the necessity for other repairs soon obliged him to make for the Canary Islands, which were hastily quitted on the 6th of September, to avoid some frigates despatched by John II., King of Portugal, who, having given great encouragement to maritime enterprise, was not unnaturally jealous of a voyage of discovery in the service of Spain, with so earnest a captain as Columbus at its head—jealousy embittered by the reflection that in times gone by he himself had been amongst those who declined to venture on the hazardous and costly scheme which Columbus placed before them. With unwavering confidence in his mission Columbus sailed steadily on his westward course, overcoming all difficulties, arising from the fierce storms of the Atlantic, the variations of the needle, the superstitions and conspiracies of his sailors, and the frailty of his craft, until, after five-and-thirty days of mingled hope and fear, moving lights were espied on Guanahani, one of the Bahama Islands, which, after a night of inconceivable suspense, was taken possession of by Columbus in the name of his generous mistress Isabella, and was reverently called San Salvador, the name by which it is still known.

This success converted the incredulity and despair of the mutinous crews into the most unbounded confidence in the skill and judgment of their undaunted leader, and Columbus found no difficulty in the further prosecution of his enterprise, which resulted in the discovery of the islands of Hayti and Cuba. The latter he believed to be part of the mainland of India, a mistake to which the familiar appellation of the American aborigines is attributable.

In a second expedition, extending from September, 1492, to June, 1496, Columbus discovered the Caribbee Islands, Puerto Rico, and Jamaica. A third, in which he discovered La Trinidad and explored the mouths of the Orinoco—thus reaching the mainland of the American continent for the first time—extended from May, 1498, to the middle of the year 1500, when he was shamefully superseded and sent home in chains by the orders of Ferdinand, who was, however, constrained by the just indignation of his people to repudiate his responsibility for this abominable outrage. In a fourth voyage, begun in May, 1502, Columbus sought unavailingly a passage to the East Indies through the Isthmus of Darien—which now,



romises to become an accom-
and explored the Costa Rica,
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in no material additions to his
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he career of this renowned dis-
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mplished was to lead the way—to
o shared with him the honours of
Vespucci, for Vasco da Gama, and
ry of maritime enterprise.

se name is for ever identified with the con-
y assigned the honour of being the first to
ere is every reason to believe that in this he
anticipated by Sebastian Cabot, born at Bristol of Venetian parents,
out the year 1477. At the early age of nineteen Cabot was associated
h his father, John Cabot, and his two brothers, in a patent (dated
arch 5, 1496) granted by Henry VII. for the discovery and conquest of
known lands, one condition of which was that a fifth of all the profits
cruing therefrom should be assigned to the English Crown. In the
llowing year, Sebastian Cabot sailed with his father from Bristol for far
athay (China), and after proceeding eastward for 700 leagues he sighted,
the 21st of June, the North American coast, which he erroneously
pposed to be a portion of the territory of which he was in quest. It is
lieved that he landed on the coast of Labrador, about lat. 56°, not
wfoundland, as has been supposed from a mistranslation of a Latin
cument appended to a map drawn by Cabot himself. To the land on
ich he was the first to plant the English flag he gave the appropriate
me of Prima Vista, and two days afterwards he reached a large island,
bably Newfoundland, and called it St. John's Island in honour of
day.

It is not with a desire to underrate the work of Columbus or of
spucci that attention is thus directed to the singularly good fortune
ich crowned Cabot's very first essay. As Columbus was the first
reach Guanahani, which may properly be considered as within the
ourage of the American continent, he may fairly be regarded as the
coverer of the New World. The fact remains, however, that of the three
lorers Cabot was the first to reach the mainland, June 21, 1497;
umbus was second, in his third voyage, about fourteen months later;
Vespucci third, in his voyage of May to October, 1499; so that, apart
the explorations of remote periods, which are traditional rather than
orical, the vast tract of country now known as the Dominion of Canada
discovered by an English-born navigator, under the auspices of an
lish king, by means of vessels manned by Englishmen and hailing
an English port.

t must not be supposed that the credit thus claimed for Sebastian
ot was not in a measure due to the skill and enterprise of his father, but
enown of the former, owing to his long career of successful navigation,
eclipsed that of the latter, who disappears from history at the close of
ifteenth century; even his last resting-place being unknown.

It seems that the Cabots, hav
along the mainland of North A
without delay to England, for t
of Henry VII. :—" 10th August
10*l.*" In February of the follo
John Kabotto, empowering him to
of 200 tons and under, to " conve
founde by the seid John in oure n
does not appear that this expedition
Cabot either died or became inca
nothing further respecting him. But
two vessels to reach China and Japan
course of this voyage, having been diverte
the icebergs of the strait to which Hudson
explored the coast as far south as Chesapeake Bay
for a claim to that part of the North American continent.

Soon after the death of Henry VII. Cabot transferred his services
the Spanish Crown, and a scheme was set on foot for the prosecution
maritime enterprise in the west; but the death of Ferdinand, in 15
seems to have prevented its accomplishment, and the result of vario
slights and intrigues was that Cabot returned to England; but in 151
under the patronage of Henry VIII., he made renewed effort, in assoc
tion with Sir Thomas Perte, to find a north-west passage, and made
way to the great inland sea known as Hudson's Bay, reaching lat. 67
Sir Thomas Perte seems to have been a hindrance rather than a help; a
the common source of difficulty to early explorers, a mutinous crew, hav
brought the expedition to a premature close, Cabot again enlisted in
service of Spain, and was entrusted by Charles V. (who appointed
Pilot-Major of the Kingdom) with the direction of the maritime expediti
set on foot by that sovereign. Under this patronage he subseque
explored the coast of South America as far as the La Plata, and he did
return to his native country until after the accession of Edward VI.,
granted him a pension of 250 marks. Although he was then (in 15
seventy years of age or thereabouts, his vigorous intellect remained un
paired, and his experience and judgment were of the utmost service to
nation, especially in the direction of the expedition entrusted to Sir H
Willoughby, which resulted in the establishment of extensive commer
relations between England and Russia. Eight years later the vet
explorer appears to have taken undiminished interest in maritime aff
as we learn from a passage in the journal of Stephen Burroughs, the c
mander of a vessel sent out from Gravesend in 1556 :—" The good
gentleman, Master Cabota, gave to the poore most liberall almes, wis
them to pray for the good future and prosperous successe of the Sercht
our Pinnesse." It is also stated that at a subsequent entertainment,
very joy that he had to see the towardness of our intended discovery
entered into the dance himselfe, amongst the rest of the young and
company."

Portugal did not wait long before making an effort to share the r
of these discoveries. In 1501 an expedition was sent out under
command of Gaspard Corteréal, who sailed from Lisbon with two ve
and explored a considerable portion of the North American coast, g

the name Terra Laborador (land which may be cultivated) to the peninsula still known as Labrador. He treacherously carried away with him fifty-seven natives, intending to sell them as slaves; but his ship foundered at sea with all on board, including himself and fifty of his hapless victims, the second vessel escaping to carry home the news of his fate.

Another geographical name, that of Cape Breton, is a memorial of the visits of the Breton, Basque, and Norman fishermen to the abounding fisheries of the Bank of Newfoundland, where as early as 1517 no fewer than fifty French, Spanish, and Portuguese vessels were engaged in the pursuit of an industry which has never since been abandoned. Until the beginning of the 16th century France had little share in the exploration of the New World, but on the accession of Francis I. to the throne he resolved that his neighbours should not monopolise its vast territory, with all the advantages, real and imaginary, accruing from its discovery and colonisation; and in 1523 he sent out a Florentine navigator, named Verazzano, who coasted along the mainland from the Chesapeake Bay northward, and boldly set up a claim to the country explored by the Cabots, under the name of "La Nouvelle France." Verazzano was followed by another navigator, a Frenchman born, who was really the first to convey to the civilised mind some adequate idea of the general features and resources of Canada. For a time the military operations and disasters of France diverted attention from the enterprise set on foot by Verazzano; but in 1534 Jacques Cartier, a native of St. Malo, set out with two small vessels of twenty tons each, and, passing through the Straits of Belle Isle, he skirted the coast of Labrador, and sailed around Newfoundland. Having landed at the headland of Gaspé, he erected there a large cross with a shield bearing the arms of France, took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign, and then sailed up the Gulf of St. Lawrence until he could see the banks on either side, satisfying himself that this was but the outlet of a mighty river. He then returned to France, and was placed in command of a more important expedition, which was joined by several scions of the French nobility. On Whit-Sunday, 1535, Cartier and his companions received the episcopal benediction, after high mass, in the Cathedral of St. Malo, and in the middle of July they reached the mouth of the St. Lawrence. On the 10th of August they entered a small bay to which Cartier, in honour of the day, gave the name by which the gulf and river of St. Lawrence have since been known. On the 7th of September he reached the Island of Orleans, named by him the Isle of Bacchus, because of the wild grapes with which it abounded, and a week later a halt was made at the Indian town of Stadacona, at the mouth of the St. Charles river, now commanded by the ramparts of Quebec. Pushing on with a portion of his company in the smallest of his three vessels, he soon reached Lake St. Peter, whence his course was temporarily arrested by a sand-bar; but taking to his boats he proceeded onward, amazed and delighted with the wild luxuriance around him, until, on the 2nd of October, he arrived at the Indian town of Hochelaga, to which he gave the name of Mont Royal, now known as Montreal. The strangers were treated by the natives with confidence and lavish hospitality; and after remaining at this spot three days, during which they surveyed the surrounding country, stretched in an unbroken expanse of woodland and river as far as the eye could reach, learning also from the natives of the

still vaster territory to the west and south, they returned to their anchorage at Stadacona, where they had determined to remain till the spring. They were not, however, prepared to encounter the rigours of a Canadian winter; scurvy in its worst form attacked the little band, and though the Indians did what they could to mitigate the disease by prescribing their own remedy, an infusion of spruce, no fewer than twenty-six of their number succumbed before the following April. At length, however, the ice-bound ships were released from the fetters which have proved fatal to so many expeditions, and Cartier set sail for France, taking with him ten of the native chieftains, whom he had perfidiously enticed on board—a miserable requital for the unsuspicious kindness with which he and his comrades had been treated. It is not unlikely that Cartier intended to convey these victims of colonising treachery back to their homes; but before another expedition was set on foot death had put an end to their hopes and fears.

Four years elapsed before Francis I.—whose resources were absorbed in the conflict with his powerful rival, Charles V. of Germany—again turned his attention to colonisation in the west. But in 1540 the Sieur de Roberval, a noble of Picardy, was appointed Viceroy of New France, and in the spring of the following year Cartier again set sail as the commander of an expedition in which five vessels were engaged. It is not a matter of surprise that on reaching Stadacona without those whom he had treacherously kidnapped, he experienced so altered a reception from the Indians whose confidence he had abused, that he felt it desirable to remove to a point farther up the river; to this spot he gave the name of Charlesbourg, and thence sent two vessels back to France for reinforcements. But as he received no response, and the attitude of the Indians continued hostile, he set sail for France in the spring of 1542, and on reaching Newfoundland he met Roberval with three ships and 200 colonists of both sexes. Notwithstanding this, however, he was so discouraged that, in spite of orders to the contrary, he continued his homeward voyage. In spite of this unlooked-for desertion, Roberval pursued his course to Cape Rouge, where he landed his little company, and erected a building for their shelter and defence. Here they remained throughout the winter, enduring great hardship and suffering, aggravated not only by the antagonism of the natives, but by mutiny amongst the colonists themselves, many of whom were convicts. In the spring of 1543, the number being then greatly reduced, Roberval made an attempt with seventy men to explore the interior, and he even passed a second winter in the country, although in the meantime Cartier had been again sent out to order his return. In May, 1544, he quitted the country with the remnant of his party, and this ill-starred expedition was brought to an abortive conclusion only less tragic than one which Roberval, who appears to have been a man of great courage, set on foot five years later, and which was never again heard of after it left the shores of France.

CHAPTER III.

THE INDIAN TRIBES AND THEIR PREDECESSORS.

BEFORE proceeding to give an account of the colonization of Canada, it will be desirable to glance briefly at the tribes who occupied rather than possessed the land in past ages, and until the advent of the European race.

We learn from Dr. Withrow, to whose comprehensive history of the Dominion we are greatly indebted for information on this and other points, that the Indians—to use the name erroneously given by early discoverers to the aborigines of the New World, under a mistaken notion as to the land in which they are found, even as the archipelago of the Caribbean Sea came to be known as the West *Indies*—were but the successors of a race which had occupied the land in pre-historic times. Of this ancient people, whose remains are to be found all over the continent of North America, abundant evidence has been yielded by their numerous sepulchral and other mounds to show that they had made great advance in arts and manufactures at a time when Europe was in a state of barbarism. They understood, amongst other things, the art of fuzing metals, as is shown by their extensive use of copper in the manufacture of spear and arrow-heads, bracelets, and other ornaments and implements, an art which had long been forgotten when America was reached by European navigators. It is believed that they were driven farther and farther south by repeated incursions of Asiatic hordes, from some of which the later Indian tribes derive their origin; and existing traces of these aboriginal inhabitants, consisting not only of the remains already referred to, but of hieroglyphic inscriptions at present undeciphered, offer a most interesting field of inquiry to the ethnologist and ethnographer of the future.

The more modern "Indian" was remarkable for his warlike propensities, his expertness as a hunter, his innate shrewdness, and his physical endurance, rather than for his civilising tendencies. His dwelling consisted of the rudest wigwam, his weapons and cutting implements were fashioned of flint or stone, his dress (laid aside in war-time, when he was gaudily bedaubed with colour) consisted of the skins of animals killed in the chase, and his most perfect production, perhaps, was the light canoe of bark in which he skilfully navigated the rapids of his native waters. The several tribes were in a chronic state of feud and warfare, in which neither sex nor age was spared, and European intruders were not slow to avail themselves of this internal antagonism in their own conflicts for the dominant power. The introduction of fire-arms and other weapons greatly aggravated the atrocities of Indian savagery; whilst the too-welcome "fire-water" and the small-pox facilitated the deterioration, both in numbers and physique, of a brave, athletic, and vigorous race.

Of the chief Indian tribes, the Algonquins included the Pequods and Narragansetts of New England, the Micmacs of Nova Scotia, the Malecites of New Brunswick, the Montagnais and Abenaquis of Quebec, the Ojibways or Chippeways and Ottawas on the great lakes, and the Crees and Sioux of the far west; the Hurons dwelt between Lakes Ontario, and Huron, and the northern bank of the St. Lawrence; the Iroquois (including the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, Senecas, and Tuscaroras)

occupied the northern part of what is now the State of New York, from the Mohawk river to the Genesee. The Iroquois, the most sanguinary and ruthless of all, became the chief allies of the British, as the Algonquin and Huron tribes were of the French, in the long struggle for supremacy, at the conclusion of which the Indians were gathered into reserves under military surveillance. They are now under the charge of an Indian agent; their interests and property are protected; many participate in the blessings of Christian civilisation, and their loyalty to the Crown is undoubted. In Manitoba and the North-West Territories there are still numerous tribes, for whom large tracts of land have been specially reserved, and who live after the fashion of their forefathers, hunting, fishing, and collecting peltries (raw fur-skins) for the Hudson's Bay Company and other traders. There are also other tribes in the province of British Columbia in a still more primitive condition.

CHAPTER IV.

DISCOVERIES OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

THE history of Canadian colonisation in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries is a history of implacable hostility, engendered by cruel and perfidious wrong, between the red and white races; of remorseless bloodshed and massacre, strangely blended with religious zeal; of innumerable hardships, mutinous treachery, and deadly disease.

The non-return of Roberval and his companions, lost amid the icy northern seas where so many intrepid men have found a grave, had the effect of checking for half a century the maritime enterprise of France, distracted as she was at this period by the struggle between the sovereign power and feudalism, by internal religious conflict, and by her struggles with Austria and other neighbouring states. In the meantime Spain had done much to establish a claim to both North and South America. In 1513 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, exploring the Isthmus of Darien, reached a mountain in Veragua, from the summit of which he beheld the vast expanse of the Pacific Ocean, and, planting the standard of Castile, took possession of the country in the name of Fernando and Isabel, a service which a few years later was requited by unjust accusations and the axe of the executioner. A year earlier Juan Ponce de Leon, making the peninsula of Florida on Palm Sunday (called in Spanish *Pasqua Florida*), bestowed that name on it, or rather on the great continent of which it forms part.

Cortes, brave, treacherous, and merciless, set out in 1518 from St. Iago de Cuba to conquer Mexico, and paralleled in the north the wonders afterwards accomplished by Pizarro in the south. At the close of ten years of terrible conflict, which secured for Spain a country retained by her for more than three hundred years, he returned home, and subsequently directed his attention to the old object of maritime ambition —a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific; in one of the expeditions sent out by him on this errand (in 1535) the coast of California was discovered, and he subsequently surveyed it himself.

In 1524 Francisco Pizarro, the discoverer and conqueror of Peru, who had served with Balboa in his Mexican expedition, sailed from Panama

with one small vessel, eighty men, and four horses, on that marvellous career which reads more like romance than sober history.

While noticing thus briefly conquests which made Spain the dominant power on broad seas known for a time as "the Spanish Main," we must not omit mention of the Portuguese discoverer Fernando Magalhaens, who, in his endeavour to reach Asia by a westerly course, sailed along the entire coast of South America until he entered and passed through the strait which perpetuates his name into the vast ocean beyond, and called it the Pacific, because of the fair weather he experienced during a cruise of nearly four months in an unsuccessful search for land.

We are now brought to the important share which England herself had in the maritime enterprise of the sixteenth century. In 1553 Sir Hugh Willoughby sailed from Deptford with three vessels fitted out by "the mystery and company of merchants adventurers for the discovery of regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown;" but of the 130 or 140 men who took part in the expedition only a few seamen returned to tell a tale of suffering and disaster; and in the following year some Russian navigators discovered Willoughby and his crew frozen to death in their vessel, the *Bona Speranza*, in one of the harbours of the White Sea. In 1570 Sir Francis Drake, emulating the exploits of the friend of his youth, Sir John Hawkins, whom he had accompanied in his last unfortunate voyage to the Spanish Main, was formally commissioned by Queen Elizabeth, and set out on the first of those marauding expeditions, in the course of which, following the route taken by Magalhaens, he not only sailed through the Strait of Magellan, but steered boldly and successfully across the Pacific until he reached the Moluccas, returning home in September, 1579, by way of Java, the Indian Ocean, and the Cape of Good Hope, thus circumnavigating the world in rather less than two years. Before accomplishing this feat he plundered the Spanish towns on the coast of Chili and Peru, and then sought to return by a north-east passage; but, on reaching the latitude of Vancouver Island, the intense cold obliged him to put back to San Francisco, where he landed and took possession of the country, which he called New Albion, in the name of his sovereign. Drake brought home so much treasure, that on his return from one of these expeditions the Queen gave secret directions that as much as would amount to £10,000 should be left in his hands; and a document endorsed by Burghley, "The quantite of bullion brought into ye Tower by Fr. Drake," shows that the silver bullion weighed 22,899 lbs. 5 ozs., the coarse silver 512 lbs. 6 ozs. and the gold bullion 101 lbs. 10 ozs. Indeed, Drake so harassed and despoiled the Spanish settlers on the American coasts, that Elizabeth asserted with increased determination the right of England to navigate the ocean in all its parts, and denied the monopoly of the New World claimed by Spain, whose domination of the ocean was still further shaken in Drake's expedition against Philip II. in 1585–86, when he took or burnt some two hundred ships in the roads of Cadiz and between that port and Cape St. Vincent, besides reducing the land batteries, or, as he grimly termed it, "singeing the King of Spain's beard."

In June, 1576, Martin Frobisher—a Yorkshire navigator, who at a later period had a share in Drake's exploits—essayed to find a north-west passage to China, and sailed from Deptford with three small vessels, two of 25 tons each, and one of 10 tons, Elizabeth waving her hand and

bidding them farewell as they passed beneath the windows of her palace at Greenwich. Taking a northerly course, by way of the Shetland Isles, within a month he discovered the island of Freesland, to the eastern point of which he gave the name of "Queen Elizabeth's Foreland." He also sighted Meta Incognita, the southern point of Baffin Land, but could not go ashore at either place because of the ice. On the 11th of August he entered the strait which bears his name, and having spent a month in exploring the neighbouring bays and inlets, taking possession of the country in the name of Elizabeth, he returned to England, arriving at Harwich on the 2nd of October, and bringing with him some fragments of ore which were supposed to contain gold. In 1577 and 1578 two other expeditions, better equipped, were sent out under Frobisher's command, in search of the precious metal; but their only result was the extended exploration of the bays and inlets in the neighbourhood of Frobisher's Strait.

Two names of high repute in this age of discovery remain to be mentioned, those of Sir Walter Raleigh and his half-brother Sir Humphrey Gilbert. In 1578 Elizabeth granted Gilbert, who had, with other West Country gentlemen, sought the Royal sanction of an enterprise for the discovery of "sundry ritche and unknowen landes," a patent empowering him to discover and take possession of all remote and barbarous lands unoccupied by any Christian prince or people, and an expedition was set on foot by him and Raleigh, but without result. In 1583 Gilbert set out on a second expedition, and Raleigh (who did not accompany it) provided £2,000 towards its cost: but after he had formally taken possession of Newfoundland in the name of Elizabeth, the further success of his enterprise was hindered by the insubordination of his filibustering crews, and the return voyage proved fatal to Gilbert himself, his tiny vessel of only ten tons burthen foundering in the stormy waters of the Atlantic. Nevertheless, in 1584, Raleigh obtained a patent empowering him to appropriate, plant, and govern any territories he might acquire in North America, in pursuance of which the first party of colonists landed in 1585 in Virginia, so called in honour of the Queen. The new settlers, as usual, soon excited the hostility of the natives, and before twelve months had passed they re-embarked on board the vessels of Drake, who anchored in Chesapeake Bay on his homeward voyage. In 1587 Raleigh made a further attempt at colonisation, and upwards of a hundred persons, some of whom were of gentle blood, were landed on Roanoke Island, in what is now the State of North Carolina; but they also soon found themselves in conflict with the natives. Various attempts were made by Raleigh for their relief, but his vessels were plundered at sea and obliged to return home; and as the strength of England was at that time being husbanded in anticipation of the Spanish invasion, effectual succour did not reach the island until after the work of extermination was completed. In the meantime (in 1589) Raleigh, having it is said spent no less than £40,000 in colonising enterprise, transferred his patent rights to a company of merchants. A few years later (in 1595) he set on foot and took command of an expedition for the discovery and conquest of the El Dorado of South America; but he does not appear to have engaged in further enterprise on the northern Continent, where his name has been commemorated in later times by a legislative decree calling the capital of North Carolina "the City of Raleigh."

CHAPTER V.

STRUGGLES AND CONFLICTS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

BUT neither failure, disaster, nor death could subdue the desire to explore the wonders, real and fabulous, of the New World. It was believed that wealth beyond the dreams of avarice was within the reach of those who were stout enough to take it—a more potent incentive than the true riches of the *terra incognita* beyond the Atlantic, its fertile soil and suitability for colonisation; for emigration was not then a necessity, and for a time conquest and plunder, rather than settlement and civilisation, were the objects of maritime enterprise.

In the early years of the seventeenth century (1602–5) three English seamen, Bartholomew Gosnold, the first to take a direct route across the Atlantic, Martin Pring, and George Weymouth, made their way to the American coast; and in 1606 James I. granted the first charters of colonisation to two companies formed in London and at Plymouth. The London or South Virginia Company sent out a hundred and five men, with three ships, which made for Chesapeake Bay at the suggestion of Raleigh, and a colony was established on the banks of the River James, so named in honour of the King, the colony itself being called Jamestown. The natives were found to be hostile, and though the Indian chieftain Powhattan befriended and protected the settlers, hardship and disease soon reduced their numbers: but for the spirit and determination of one of their number, James Smith, the enterprise would probably have been abandoned. In the winter of 1607 Smith set out to explore the interior, but an unexpected attack by the Indians resulted in the slaughter of his companions, and Smith himself only escaped a like fate at the intercession of Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhattan, who subsequently married a young Englishman named John Rolfe and died in England. On returning to Jamestown, Smith found the number of the colonists reduced to forty, but he encouraged them by his fortitude and zeal, and in 1608, with two or three companions, explored three thousand miles of the neighbouring rivers and coasts, and constructed a map which is said to be still in existence. When he returned to England in 1609, fresh arrivals, consisting chiefly of ne'er-do-weels, had so increased the colonists that they numbered nearly four hundred, but in six months they became reduced to sixty by excesses, disease, and famine. In 1611 six ships, with three hundred emigrants of a better class, and supplies of various kinds, sent out under Sir Thomas Gates, rescued the colony from extinction, and brought it prosperity.

It should be mentioned here that in 1607–9 the famous Henry Hudson, in command of a ship fitted out by London merchants, explored the coasts of Greenland and Nova Zembla, in order to find a short passage to China. Failing in this object, in 1609 he bore towards America, and skirted the coast as far south as Chesapeake Bay, returning thence to England. In April, 1610, he set out on what proved to be his last voyage, in quest of a route which has proved fatal to so many brave men —a north-west passage; and after determining the geographical nature of the great bay which bears his name, he resolved to pass the winter in its

icy solitudes, and renew his exploration in the spring. He was, however, constrained by his crew (only twenty-three in number) to abandon this intention; and after he had set sail for home, their discontent was converted to open mutiny, and he and his son with seven others were barbarously sent adrift in an open boat, and were never again heard of.

In the meantime, French enterprise was again turned in the same direction. In 1598 Henri IV. appointed the Marquis de la Roche Viceroy of New France, thus giving him nominal control of the northern continent of America; and a small vessel, carrying forty convicts, was sent out on a mission of colonisation. Having, as a preliminary step, landed these men on Sable Island, off the coast of Nova Scotia, De la Roche sailed off to find a favourable site for a colony, but adverse winds necessitated his return to France. For five years the wretched convicts were left without food, clothing, or shelter, except such as they could provide for themselves, and when at length succour reached them, only twelve were found alive. De la Roche died soon afterwards, and his patent was bestowed on two adventurers named Pontgravé and Chauvin, who traded for furs and established a depôt at the mouth of the Saguenay, about 250 miles up the River St. Lawrence; but this and one or two other attempts of the like nature had but a temporary success, and the handful of men left in Canada soon became so diminished in numbers that the small remnant were dependent on the natives for their very existence.

At this juncture a Frenchman of gentle birth, maritime and military experience, and undaunted courage, fired moreover by religious enthusiasm, came to the front. Possessing in an unusual degree the qualities necessary to success, and anxious to engage in the adventurous enterprise in which so many had failed, Samuel de Champlain naturally turned to the New World at the termination of the wars of the League, in which he had served under Henri of Navarre, and at the end of the sixteenth century he accompanied Pontgravé in an expedition up the St. Lawrence, under a Royal commission entrusted by the King to Aymer de Chastes, Governor of Dieppe. They brought back a cargo of furs and the intelligence that the small posts established by previous explorers were deserted and desolate. The patent held by De Chastes, who died before their return, was transferred in 1603 to Pierre du Gast, Sieur de Monts, whose viceroyalty of La Cadie or Acadie extended from the fortieth to the forty-sixth degree of north latitude, barely touching the territory now included within the Dominion of Canada. As De Monts was a Calvinist, it is not surprising to learn that liberty of conscience was to be accorded to those who professed the Protestant religion, but only the Roman Catholic faith was to be taught to the Indians, an understanding which did not prevent bitter disputes between the chiefs of the expedition, which included priests, soldiers, artizans, and, as usual, convicts. Proceeding first to Nova Scotia, they there appropriated the vessel of a fur trader named Rossignol for his encroachment on the monopoly granted to De Monts, leaving him such solace as he could derive from the bestowal of his name on the harbour now known as Liverpool Bay. Passing through the Bay of Fundy and a narrow strait beyond it, they reached a land-locked harbour of such attractive aspect that the Baron de Poutrincourt, who took part in the expedition, asked and obtained permission to form a settlement there, and called the place Port Royal. The Bay of Fundy was thoroughly explored by

De Monts and Champlain, and a small island between New Brunswick and Maine, named St. Croix, was chosen as the site for a new settlement; but the intense cold of the following winter reduced the colonists from seventy-nine to thirty-five, many falling a prey to scurvy. Recruits were, however, brought from France by Poutrincourt and Pontgravé, Champlain remaining behind to encourage his suffering comrades; and after the coasts of Maine and Massachusetts had been explored, it was decided to abandon the island of St. Croix and combine the strength of the settlers at Port Royal, where they were joined in 1606 by the poet and future historian, Marc Lescarbot. Champlain and Lescarbot managed to secure the good-will of the Indians, and seemed in a fair way to establish a settlement, when a vessel arrived from France with an order annulling the patent, and Port Royal had to be abandoned. Three years later, however, it was renewed, and Poutrincourt returned to the settlement, finding a remarkable proof of the loyalty of the Indians, for the buildings the French had erected were intact, and even the furniture left therein was undisturbed. A number of the Indians received Christian baptism; their conversion became an object of increased interest in France, especially amongst ladies of fashion, and two Jesuit priests were sent out; but dissension rather than amity was the result, and in 1613 the Jesuits left Port Royal in order to form a settlement on the island of Mount Desert, in an inlet of the coast of Maine still known as Frenchman's Bay. Here occurred the first of the long series of conflicts between the French and English for the possession of Canada. A ship sailing under English colours and commanded by a Virginian colonist named Argall, made its unwelcome appearance. The French hastily manned their vessel, but it was soon disabled by the English fire, and Argall pillaged the settlement, stole the commission granted by the French king, and cruelly sent fifteen Frenchmen adrift in an open boat, carrying off the rest to Virginia, where they narrowly escaped execution as invaders of British territory. In 1614 Argall completed his work by entirely demolishing the settlements at Mount Desert and St. Croix, and they were of necessity altogether abandoned.

In the following year Poutrincourt died the death of a soldier at the siege of Mery; but De Monts, obtaining a renewal of his patent, sent out Pontgravé and Champlain on an expedition memorable for the establishment of a little settlement, which in course of time expanded into the famous city of Quebec. Having foiled a conspiracy aimed at his life, and sent the offenders in chains to France, Champlain was left with only twenty-eight men, of whom twenty died of scurvy during the winter. The rest were saved by opportune reinforcements from France, and shortly afterwards Champlain, with exploration for his object, joined the Algonquins in a murderous raid on the Iroquois. Passing up the St. Lawrence and the River Richelieu on its right bank, they reached the lake which bears Champlain's name, and made a fierce onslaught on the Iroquois on the borders of Lake St. George, thus establishing deadly and enduring hostility between that tribe and the French. After the assassination of Henri IV., the Prince of Condé and other French nobles were successively appointed Viceroys of Canada; but Champlain continued at the head of the enterprise, justly possessing the confidence of colonists abroad and countrymen at home, and in 1611 he again displayed his wisdom by erecting a

fort on the island of Montreal for the protection of the fur trade. Having made a journey to France on behalf of the colony, he brought back with him four Récollet friars, who engaged in missionary effort in a most zealous and self-denying spirit, and were followed by others equally devoted to their work. Joining the Algonquins and Hurons in a second attack on the Iroquois, he became involved in a long and perilous expedition, in the course of which he traversed the River Ottawa, Lake Nipissing, the Georgian Bay, Lake Huron (which he called Mer Douce), and Lake Ontario (to which he gave the name of Lac St. Louis). The attack proved unsuccessful, Champlain himself being severely wounded, and a retreat, beset with terrible hardships, followed. On reaching Quebec, Champlain energetically set to work to strengthen the colony he had founded there, building a stone fort in the lower town and commencing on the heights the Castle of St. Louis, which served as the residence of the Governor of Canada until its destruction by fire in 1834.

After the accession of Louis XIII. an associated company of merchant adventurers obtained permission to engage in the fur trade, on condition of co-operation with the colonists; but as the interests of both were not identical, rivalries sprang up, and religious jealousies also proved a hindrance to progress. On the accession of Richelieu to power as the leading spirit in the councils of France, the astute Cardinal formulated a comprehensive scheme for the development of the colony, and organised the Company of the Hundred Associates, with absolute control over the whole of New France from Florida to Hudson's Bay, and a monopoly of its trade except the whale and cod fisheries. But in the meantime James I. of England had granted a patent to a company of merchants called the Grand Council of Plymouth, covering the territory between the fortieth and forty-eighth degree of north latitude, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Sir W. Alexander, one of the members of the Council, obtained in 1621 the concession of the Acadian peninsula, proposed to found there a colony to be called New Scotland, and built a fort at Port Royal. Charles I. renewed this concession, and established an order called the Knights Bannerets of Nova Scotia, to be bestowed on a hundred and fifty members, together with grants of land, on condition of placing a certain number of settlers thereon; but this scheme proved unattractive and unsuccessful.

In 1627–8 hostilities between England and France afforded Sir W. Alexander a pretext for an attack on the French settlements, and David Kirk, a Huguenot refugee, having captured Port Royal, demanded the surrender of Quebec. Champlain held out to the last extremity, but was at length (in 1629) compelled to yield, and Kirk supplanted him as Governor; but after three years the French settlements were restored under the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, the surrender having occurred after the conclusion of peace. By the same treaty Nova Scotia (or Acadia, as it was then called) was ceded to the French. Champlain resumed his work in Canada with undiminished zeal, but on Christmas Day, 1635, death put an end to a career which is singularly free from blame, and justly entitles him to the honour in which his name is held by his countrymen.

The English colony established in Virginia in 1607 underwent various vicissitudes, until in 1622 the Indians made a murderous attack upon the

settlers throughout a district 140 miles in extent, and in the course of an hour no fewer than 347 of their number were treacherously killed by those who professed to be their friendly allies. This attack was followed at intervals by others; but the little colony, reinforced by recruits of a better class than before, increased in numbers so rapidly, that by the middle of the century it consisted of 20,000 persons, and there were thirty-one English ships in Chesapeake Bay.

About the end of the sixteenth century a handful of Puritans, living in the little town of Scrooby, Nottinghamshire, separated themselves from the Church of England, and were compelled to worship in secret at the house of one of their number. But persecution fell upon them, and in 1608 they quitted their native land and took shelter in Holland, where they found protection, employment, and (what they most desired) liberty of conscience. Here they remained, honest and diligent, joined from time to time by others of their fellow-countrymen, until, anxious to maintain their existence as an independent community, they resolved to cross the Atlantic. Having obtained a patent from the London Company, the "Pilgrim Fathers" set sail from Delft Haven in the *Speedwell*, a vessel of 180 tons burthen, on the 22nd of July, 1620. They bore for England and first touched at Southampton, where they found the *Mayflower*, with another party of Puritans from London, and the two vessels proceeded in company to Plymouth. Here the *Speedwell* was found to be unseaworthy, and the two companies of voluntary exiles were crowded on board the *Mayflower*, which left Plymouth on her eventful mission on the 6th of September. After a stormy voyage they cast anchor off Cape Cod on the 11th of November, and the little band, consisting of one hundred and one persons, of whom forty-one were men, agreed by a formal document to enact such laws as might be thought desirable for the good government of the colony, appointed John Carver (who died in the following year) as their first Governor, and sent out an exploring party, which on the 23rd of December landed in Massachusetts Bay, at a place which they determined to call New Plymouth. "The consequences of that day," says Mr. Bancroft in his 'History of the United States,' "are constantly unfolding themselves as time advances. It was the origin of New England; it was the planting of the New England institutions."

The severity of the winter season had its usual disastrous effect on the new-comers, and reduced the colonists to about fifty, but the little community was recruited from time to time by fresh arrivals. In 1628 about a hundred English Puritans established a colony at Salem, in Massachusetts Bay, followed in 1629 by two hundred more, and in 1630 by no fewer than 1,500; but large numbers died, and some returned to England. However, the bulk of the colonists were unrepining and stout of heart, in spite of much suffering and privation; the population steadily increased, and other settlements were formed at Boston and Charlestown, as many as 3,000 immigrants arriving in a single year. Amongst them were Winthrop, afterwards Governor; Roger Williams, who a few years later founded the settlement of Providence, Rhode Island; Thomas Hooker, who established a similar colony in the Connecticut Valley; and many other stern and resolute pioneers. In 1632, also, an independent effort at colonisation was made by Lord Baltimore, who obtained under feudal tenure a grant of the territory which he called Maryland. A Roman Catholic himself, he

nevertheless accorded liberty of conscience to all; and this community increased so rapidly, that in 1660 it numbered 10,000 souls.

It was not long before the colonists in Massachusetts came into collision with the natives, who were naturally jealous of an increasing and encroaching population on their own soil. In 1637, in consequence, it is said, of outrages committed by the Pequods, some sixty of the Connecticut settlers attacked and destroyed an Indian fort with all its garrison, and utterly exterminated the tribe, over 2,000 in number—a massacre which Dr. Withrow justly reprobates as "an act of extreme and unjustifiable severity." Thenceforward the redskins became less and less able to cope with the New Englanders, who strengthened their hold on the country year by year, until in 1675 the whole population was estimated at 55,000.

Concurrently with these operations other European nations had striven to establish a footing in the New World, or to place earlier claims on a firmer basis. In 1615 the Dutch had a trading port at Albany, and to their enterprise we owe the foundation (seven years later) of the city of New York, called by them New Amsterdam. In 1638 the Swedes established a colony in Delaware, which was ceded to the Dutch in 1655, and by them (with other possessions) to the English in 1664. The French also pursued their work of colonisation, but not with the vigour which characterised the English settlers. At Champlain's death in 1635 there were only 250 Europeans in the colony of New France, in 1648 only 800, and in 1662, when the charter of the Company of the Hundred Associates was annulled, it was less than 2,000. The pious zeal manifested in France for the conversion of the native tribes to the Christian faith was, however, fervent and enthusiastic. Ladies of gentle birth, with Madame de la Peltrie at their head, left home and friends to labour among the Indians of Quebec, teaching their children and tending their sick, of whom many suffered from small-pox; and these were followed by the Marquis de Silleri and others, inspired by a kindred devotion. The fervour with which their operations (as recorded in the annual "Relations" of the Jesuits) were watched in France suggested the establishment of a mission on the island of Montreal. An association called the "Association of Nôtre Dame de Montreal" was formed, a grant of the island was obtained, and on the 17th of May, 1642, the little company composing the mission, with prayer and thanksgiving commenced the settlement which is now the flourishing city of Montreal. A strong palisade was erected to protect the colony, which gradually increased in numbers, from the attacks of the Iroquois, who had by this time become accustomed to the use of firearms, which they obtained from traders, and their reckless bravery and stealthy cunning made them formidable foes, not only to the French, but to their allies of the Algonquin and Huron tribes. With but little cessation this warfare, which on the side of the Indians was characterised by the most cruel atrocities, continued throughout the remainder of the century; but the dangers to be encountered excited rather than restrained the noble impulses of many devoted Jesuit missionaries, who gladly returned to their labours, to torture, and to death, even after they had been spared for awhile to kindle anew in their native country the desire to spread a knowledge of the Christian faith in these distant lands. In almost every Indian town within reach a mission was established, with a zeal which showed no sign of abatement, though ever and anon a community was

surprised by the war-whoop of the Iroquois, followed by a terrible massacre which spared neither sex, nor age, nor infancy, except in reservation for tortures too harrowing for description. In 1659 the Abbé Laval (who eleven years later became the first Bishop of the colony) was placed at the head of the missions as Vicar Apostolic, and made a brave but unsuccessful stand against the liquor traffic, which had wrought incalculable mischief amongst the natives, whose hostility became so formidable, that in 1661 four hundred soldiers were sent out from France in response to an appeal from the Governor (the Baron D'Avaugour) for 3,000. In 1663 the terrors of this period were amplified by a succession of earthquakes, extending over a period of five months; and in the same year the charter of the Hundred Associates, organised by Richelieu, was annulled, and their weak and inefficient administration came to an end.

It has been thought desirable to recapitulate with some amount of detail the events recorded in the preceding pages, in order to show the steps taken by both England and France to establish a footing in Canada, from which the early history of America cannot be dissociated. The continuation of the narrative must, however, be more rapid.

On the restoration of Acadia (or Nova Scotia) to the French Crown under the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, the country was divided into provinces, under proprietary governors, whose jealousies relative to jurisdiction and other matters soon led to deadly hostility between La Tour and the Seigneur d'Aulnay, two of the governors so appointed, in which their strength was wasted. During the war with Holland, which terminated in Blake's decisive victory of July, 1653, Oliver Cromwell determined to attack the Dutch settlement of Manhattan, at the mouth of the Hudson. The treaty of peace signed in April, 1654, set aside this project, and the conquest of Acadia being then resolved upon, an expedition was sent out in 1656 under Colonel Sedgwick, and, after a brief and ineffective defence, the French forts surrendered. For a period of eleven years the English portion of the country was governed by Sir Thomas Temple, and the French territories by Le Borgne. In the meantime the Protectorate had been followed by the Restoration, and in 1667 the Treaty of Breda restored Acadia to the French, who claimed also the whole of the territory from the southern coasts of Maine to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Sir Thomas Temple made a stout protest for the retention of certain forts on which much English money had been expended, but these were yielded with the rest.

The government of New France having become subject to Imperial control on the revocation of the charter of the Hundred Associates, Colbert, the great minister of Louis XIV., recognised the importance of colonial development in Canada, and strove to aid it by every means in his power; but in this, as in other patriotic intentions, he was hindered by the waste of blood and treasure in the wars in which Louis engaged. A new form of government was established in New France, administered by a Council, consisting of a Governor charged with military control, an Intendant whose functions were legal and financial, the Bishop, and a certain number of Councillors. But here again mutual jealousies were a bar to smooth administration. Colbert sought to widen the sphere of his country's enterprise in the New World by organising the Company of the West invested with nominal control over vast districts in Western Africa,

South America, the Antilles, and the eastern half of North America, from Florida to Hudson's Bay. More practical in its results was the expedition sent by Charles II. in 1664 to the river Hudson, for it resulted in the surrender of New Amsterdam, which thenceforward became New York, deriving its name from the Duke of York, to whom his royal brother had made a grant of the adjacent country. Then commenced a struggle between the two countries for commercial pre-eminence, and for the consequent favour of the wily Iroquois, or Five Nations (composed of the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas), who allied themselves with the English and French alternately, according to the fortune of the time. In these struggles the Marquis de Tracy, who was appointed Viceroy, the Governor de Courcelles, and the Intendant Jean Baptiste Talon, were conspicuous in maintenance of the French claims; and much was done in the way of extended exploration and settlement, the sovereignty of France being asserted by Talon even on the distant shores of Hudson's Bay, and on the coasts of Newfoundland. But here, as in France itself, excessive taxation was sorely felt, and the most prominent result was the enrichment, at the expense of the colonists, of the Company formed by Colbert, which controlled the prices of the necessaries of life and of the products of the country, and to which independent traders had to contribute one-fourth of all beaver-skins, and one-twelfth of all buffalo robes. In 1674 their charter was annulled; but the colony did not benefit by the change, for these heavy taxes only reverted to the Crown, and were leased out to "farmers-general," an iniquitous system analogous to that which a century later did so much to provoke the French Revolution. In 1672 De Courcelles and Talon were respectively succeeded by the Count de Frontenac and M. Duchesneau, the former of whom carried out a project of Talon for the exploration of the great river Mechasepé, or Mississippi, established a port called Fort Frontenac at a commanding spot (where Kingston now stands) on the border of Lake Ontario, and thence obtained control of Montreal and the intervening strait. The credit of exploring the Mississippi is mainly due to the indomitable courage and perseverance of the Sieur de la Salle, who encountered terrible hardships in the pursuit of this enterprise, in which a Récollet friar named Hennepin and the Sieur de la Motte also had an important share, the former pursuing the course of the Upper Mississippi far beyond the Minnehaha Falls. In his last successful effort, in 1682, La Salle trusted to canoes alone, and after passing down the river Illinois, he reached the Mississippi on the 6th of February. Sixty days later his little flotilla arrived at the mouth of that river in the Gulf of Mexico, and La Salle formally proclaimed the sovereignty of France over the vast territory lying between the Alleghanies and the Rocky Mountains. But in the meantime intrigue had been at work, Frontenac had been recalled, and La Salle had the bitterness of finding his discoveries discredited and his authority superseded. Returning to France, he addressed a memorial to the King, setting forth the dangers and the results of his journeyings, which had extended over a space of five years and had cost him 150,000 crowns, and obtained command of another expedition, the avowed objects of which were to fortify the mouth of the Mississippi, to organise a force of 15,000 Indians, and to wrest from the Spaniards the mines of Mexico. The story of this expedition is a story of disaster from first to last. Treachery, sickness, and misfortune beset the intrepid

explorer, who fell at length by the bullet of one of his mutinous followers.

Meanwhile, notwithstanding changes in the administration, the attacks of the Iroquois on the French colonists were renewed from time to time with unabated ferocity, and though their disposition towards the English settlers was more friendly, occasional vacillations showed that as allies they could not be relied on. Colonel Dongan, Governor of New York, did not hesitate to encourage their preference, and when in 1686 the French Governor Denonville, in antagonism to English interests, strengthened Fort Frontenac and sought to establish a military post at Niagara, he (Dongan) urged the Indians to a still closer alliance, for which a cogent argument was soon afforded by the treachery of Denonville, who, having invited fifty Iroquois chiefs to a conference at Fort Frontenac, seized and shipped them in irons to France, thus complying with a whim of the King, who had urged the extermination of hostile tribes, and thought that, as the Iroquois were stout and strong, they would be useful as galley-slaves. In 1687 Denonville made a terrible onslaught on the Senecas with a force of 2,500 men, of whom 700 were Illinois and other Indian allies, and spent ten days in ravaging their country; but in 1688 this slaughter was avenged by reprisals on the part of the whole Five Nations, who in the course of the year killed more than a thousand colonists, levelled Fort Niagara with the ground, and assumed so threatening an attitude that negotiations for peace were opened, but were defeated by the craft and treachery of Kondiaronk, a Huron chief. The massacre of Lachine, in 1689—when 1,200 Indians stealthily landed at night on the island of Montreal, butchered men, women and children indiscriminately, and fired their dwellings—was followed by the destruction and abandonment of Fort Frontenac, and by the practical reduction of "La Nouvelle France" to the forts of Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal.

This tragic episode led to the recall of Denonville and the re-appointment of Frontenac, who found the difficulties of his position aggravated by the declaration of war between France and England, consequent upon the Revolution which sent James II. into exile and placed William of Orange on the throne. Frontenac wisely brought with him from France the chiefs kidnapped by Denonville, treated them well on the voyage, and sent them back to their tribes as a step towards conciliation. At the beginning of 1690 he organised three several attacks on the British colonies. One expedition, composed of 200 men, half of whom were Indians, attacked the little village of Corlaer (now Schenectady) near Albany, after a march of twenty-two days from Montreal, fired the wooden houses in the dead of night, and slaughtered the inhabitants, who were roused from their sleep by the war-whoop of the Indians. In like manner a second party of fifty men, proceeding from Three Rivers, ravaged the village of Salmon Falls, in New Hampshire; and a third band from Quebec, after a defence extending over three days, reduced and destroyed the British fort at Casco Bay, handed the garrison over to the merciless Indians, and burnt every house for two leagues around.

These massacres were in part avenged by the harassing attacks of the Iroquois on the frontier ports of the French, and in the spring Sir William Phips was sent from Massachusetts with eight small vessels and 700 men to attack the province of Acadia. Port Royal, garrisoned by only eighty

men, capitulated under terms of surrender which Phips subsequently found a pretext for disregarding, pillaging the merchants and the church, and carrying off the garrison as prisoners to Boston. The capture of Port Royal was soon followed by the reduction of the other Acadian forts, and the entire province became subject to English control; but before very long the garrisons were withdrawn, and Acadia again passed into the possession of the French.

Shortly after his capture of Port Royal, Phips set sail from Boston with some 2,000 men to attempt the capture of Quebec, the garrison of which had been increased by Frontenac to 3,000 men in anticipation of hostilities. A summons to surrender was met with a reply of defiance, and in proceeding to the attack Phips was repulsed with heavy loss and was compelled to retreat to Boston, leaving five of his cannon in the hands of the enemy, and losing some of his shattered vessels by the way. A year or two later Phips was appointed Governor of Massachusetts, and he was subsequently recalled to England, where he died in 1693.

At this time the population of New France amounted to 11,000, while that of New England was tenfold as great. The Iroquois numbered about 7,000, of whom 2,000 were fighting men. The French displayed the most determined bravery, in the face of these odds, in the irregular warfare that ensued—a warfare the terrors of which were greatly aggravated by the deadly and stealthy character of the onslaughts made by the Indian allies, who were encouraged in their cruel and remorseless slaughter by both French and English by barbarous offers of prize-money for human scalps.

In 1693 an expedition was fitted out in England for an attack, first on Martinique, and then on Quebec; but at Martinique the result was a repulse with a loss of 900 men, followed by an outbreak of yellow fever which diminished the 5,000 men who manned the fleet to less than half their number, and the second part of the programme was abandoned. In the same year no fewer than 900 British vessels were captured by French privateers, and only 69 were taken by way of reprisal.

In 1695–6 Frontenac, whose energy was unabated under the weight of seventy-five years, made some determined efforts to subdue the hostile Iroquois; in 1697 the Baron de Castine (who had married the daughter of an Indian chieftain) made a successful attack on a stone fort mounting eighteen cannon which Sir William Phips had built at Pemaquid, and this success was followed by an attack made by Captain D'Iberville on the British settlements in Newfoundland, by the capture of several forts erected on the shores of Hudson's Bay for the protection of British fur-traders, and, indeed, by the conquest of the whole Hudson's Bay territory. But in 1697 the Treaty of Ryswick nullified the results of the unceasing warfare of eight long years, by restoring to France and England the several possessions held by them at its commencement; and thus the century closed with a patched-up peace, soon to be again broken, and pregnant with melancholy reflection for those who had wasted their lives and substance in the struggle, to no purpose but that of embittering relations between two nations, each of whom might have found abundant room for peaceful and prosperous colonisation.

CHAPTER VI.

CONQUEST OF CANADA.

AT the very beginning of the eighteenth century, although France and England were no longer at war, the seeds of future discord were industriously sown. The New York colonists sought the alliance of the Iroquois as fellow-subjects of the English Crown, but the Indians preferred to maintain an independent attitude, and concluded a treaty of peace with the French, which was ratified in 1701, with much ceremonial, at Montreal. A decree of the New York legislature, directing the execution of any "Popish priest" who might be found within the borders of the territory occupied by the Five Nations, embittered the relations between the rival colonists; and when in 1702 the peace established by the treaty of Ryswick came to an end, and France and England were again antagonistic powers, the earlier ferocity of the New World conflicts was renewed with merciless inhumanity by the combatants on both sides. The Iroquois adhered to their temporising policy, neither French nor English could rely on their allegiance, and the former, having re-established and strengthened Port Royal, as the capital of Acadia, not only resisted all attacks, but pursued their advantage until at length the British were nearly driven out of Newfoundland. At this juncture, in 1709, the New Englanders resolved on a more determined attempt, and appealed to the mother country for aid through Colonels Nicholson and Schuyler, the latter of whom was accompanied to England by five Iroquois chiefs, who were presented to Queen Anne, and undertook on behalf of their tribes to fight side by side with the English for the conquest of Canada. In 1711, in response to this appeal, a fleet of eighty vessels, under the command of Sir Hovenden Walker, with five of Marlborough's regiments and two regiments of militia, set sail from Boston harbour to attack Quebec, whilst four thousand militia and six hundred Iroquois, under Colonel Nicholson, marched from Albany to Lake George; but Walker's expedition turned out so disastrous that he sailed for home with the shattered remnant of his fleet, and his failure necessitated a retreat on the part of Nicholson.

Two years later (in 1713) peace was restored by the important treaty of Utrecht, which stipulated, amongst other conditions, that Hudson's Bay and Straits and the adjacent territory should be ceded by France to Great Britain, together with Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, thus reducing the French possessions to Canada, Cape Breton Island, the small islands of Miquelon and St. Pierre, off Newfoundland, and certain limited rights of fishery on that coast. This peace, which extended over thirty years, was the first opportunity afforded to the rival settlers for the development of colonisation, and the strengthening of their defences, in anticipation of a greater struggle yet to come.

In October, 1740, the death of Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, and the accession of Maria Theresa, to whom the Imperial Crown was secured by the decree known as the Pragmatic Sanction, published by the late Emperor in 1713, with guarantees from other European Powers, again involved Europe in war. England, which could not long remain aloof, supported the claims of Maria Theresa, whilst France sided with those who

were in favour of Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, and declared war against England, encouraging also the Young Pretender in that attempt to recover the lost heritage of the Stuarts which terminated in the victory of Culloden and the flight of Charles Edward to France.

As a matter of course, the European contest extended to the western side of the Atlantic. In 1745 a hundred English ships, under Commodore Warren, besieged and captured Louisburg, Cape Breton Island, the strongest post held by the French, and a fleet fitted out at Rochelle for its recovery was dispersed by storm. In 1747 a second expedition was encountered and defeated; but in the following year Louisburg was restored to the French, in exchange for Madras, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which put an end to the warfare in Europe.

In 1749 Lord Halifax organised a movement for the colonisation of the ceded territory of Acadia (Nova Scotia); sums amounting in five years to upwards of £400,000 were voted by the Imperial Government in support of the project; grants of land, a free passage, and other inducements were held out to settlers; and Chebucto Harbour, or Halifax, as it was thenceforward called, was determined on as the site of the new settlement. Before the close of the year nearly three thousand settlers had arrived from the mother country, and had built three hundred log-houses, besides defensive works; and the Hon. Edward Cornwallis, who had been appointed Governor, gave reality to the occupation by demanding unconditional allegiance to George II., even from the deputies representing the French settlements, and by asserting the sovereignty of Great Britain over the entire province. The French responded to these measures with an aggressive policy, stirred up afresh the animosity of their Indian allies, and built a fort (called Fort Beau Séjour), commanding the isthmus between Nova Scotia and the mainland, which became a centre of disaffection. New posts were also established on Lake Erie and in the Ohio valley, and an envoy was sent by the Governor of Virginia to warn the French against encroachment on British territory. This envoy, who received a defiant reply to his message, was no other than George Washington, the future liberator of the United States from British control, just arrived at man's estate. In 1754 a company of London and Virginia merchants formed a settlement and built a fort at the point where Pittsburg now stands, and this fort was seized by the French, who called it Fort Du Quesne, after the then Governor of Canada. Meanwhile Washington, advanced to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, had been sent from Virginia to occupy the fort for the English, and on his approach M. Jumonville was sent with a small force to warn him off what was claimed as French territory. Washington, apprehending a hostile purpose, surprised this party encamped in a narrow valley, and a short but sharp engagement ensued, in which Jumonville and ten Frenchmen were slain, and twenty-one were taken prisoners. Washington then threw up entrenchments, and held his ground for a month, but was at length compelled to capitulate to superior numbers, and retreated with military honours, leaving the Ohio valley in the hands of the French. This, however, may be regarded as the beginning of the final conflict, which ended in the complete defeat of the French, and was followed by the declaration of independence on the part of the United States.

The series of events which led to this consummation must be rapidly reviewed. In January, 1755, the British Government, in order to retrieve

the loss of the Ohio valley, sent a body of English troops under General Braddock, who was accompanied by Washington on his march against Fort Du Quesne. The campaign was a disastrous one. When within a few miles of the fort, Braddock, neglecting the special precautions necessary to the warfare in which he was engaged, fell into an ambuscade of Indians, was himself mortally wounded, and although his troops (about seven hundred in number) fought with desperate bravery, they were at length utterly routed, fully one-half being slain on the field, while the rest fled in confusion. Pursuit was not attempted, but a fierce border warfare followed, in which the Pennsylvania and Virginia settlements suffered severely. A simultaneous expedition against Fort Niagara, opposed at all points by the Iroquois, had to be abandoned. But reprisals were at once resolved upon. In July of the same year Colonel Johnson, with five thousand New England militia, ascended the river Hudson for a distance of forty miles, constructed Fort Edward, and formed a camp on the banks of Lake George, so named by him in honour of the King. The object of attack was the station of Crown Point, north of Lake George, but the French, anticipating the movement, advanced southward from that garrison to attack Fort Edward. A thousand men sent to intercept them were surprised, and obliged to fall back on the main body; the two opposing forces met, and after a sharp encounter the French were defeated with heavy loss and compelled to retreat, their commander, Baron Dieskau, being taken prisoner. A fort, called Fort William Henry, was built on the site of the conflict, and Johnson was rewarded with the honour of Knighthood and a grant of £5,000. In the meantime Colonel Moncton had captured Fort Beau Séjour and re-named it Fort Cumberland, and Captain Rous had occupied another fort at the mouth of the St. John river, in the Bay of Fundy, which had been abandoned and partially dismantled before he reached it.

The sympathy of the French population of Acadia was naturally on the side of their countrymen, and was the source of so much anxiety at this critical period, although they were supposed to occupy a position of neutrality, that it was decided to disarm them; besides which they were required to furnish certain supplies to the military posts on pain of death, and to take an unconditional oath of allegiance to the English Crown. But this they refused to do unless they were exempted from bearing arms against their compatriots; whereupon it was determined to expel the entire French population of Acadia, and to distribute the exiles amongst the various British colonies of North America. For this purpose a number of vessels proceeded from Boston harbour to the Bay of Fundy, and on the 5th of September this decree, which occupied three or four months in execution, was put in force. The Acadians, who had, undoubtedly, endeavoured to stir up the Indians against the English, unsuspicious of the terrible stroke which was to fall upon them, were marched on board the vessels, taking with them their money and such household goods as stowage could be provided for, but their lands and houses, cattle, and crops which had just been garnered, were confiscated. Some fled to the woods or to Canada, others entrusted their lives to the doubtful mercies of the Indians, and many met with a miserable fate. Even those who were sent into exile had to endure heartrending partings, women and children being separated from husbands and fathers, in many cases never to meet again in this life.

In the following year (1756) what is known as the Seven Years' War

broke out, with Austria, France, Russia, and Sweden, on one side, and England and Prussia on the other. At this time the French had still a firm hold on Canada, although their North American population (sorely discouraged by an oppressive system of government very near akin to that which was incubating revolution at home) numbered scarcely 80,000, against 3,000,000 British colonists. The Earl of Loudoun was appointed Governor of Virginia and Commander-in-Chief, but his vacillation and incompetence were opposed by the vigour and resolution of the French general Montcalm, who in August took Forts Oswego and Ontario, at the mouth of the Oswego river, and followed up these successes by the capture of Fort William Henry, on Lake George, which was razed to the ground. The English general Webb offered but a half-hearted resistance, and the British commanders were so disheartened that, although Lord Loudoun had a force of 12,000 men at his command, with twenty men-of-war carrying 1,200 guns, he shrank from carrying out a design to attack Louisburg, on ascertaining that it was defended by a garrison of 10,000, with a fleet as strong as his own, and took his ships back to England, where his pusillanimity met with unqualified reprobation, and was severely censured by William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, who stated in the House of Commons that Loudoun might have retrieved our position in America had he not wasted his time from the 9th of July to the 5th of August in inquiring whether or no the French had a superior force.

These and other disasters soon brought about a change of Ministry, and Pitt, who took the lead in the new Cabinet, although he was not the actual Premier, determined on making a prompt and vigorous effort for the conquest of Canada. Selecting his captains for their ability, he sent General Amherst to take command of the troops, whilst Admiral Boscawen was placed at the head of the fleet. On the 2nd of June, 1758, a fleet of 150 transports, carrying 12,000 troops, appeared before Louisburg, and the first to jump into the surf and lead his men to attack the French forces drawn up to resist the landing was the gallant Wolfe, second in command. Temporary earthworks thrown up along the coast were at once carried, and the fortress of Louisburg, garrisoned by 3,500 men, was besieged with vigour as determined as the heroism with which it was defended; but it was not until the 26th of July that the Governor, Drucourt, capitulated. The French fleet in the harbour was utterly destroyed, and 15,000 stand of arms, 240 pieces of ordnance, and immense quantities of stores, fell into the hands of the victors, who sent nearly 6,000 prisoners of war to England, together with eleven stand of colours, which were deposited in St. Paul's Cathedral. Pitt gained immense credit by this success, which restored Cape Breton to the British Crown, and was followed by the destruction of a number of French settlements on both sides of the Bay of Fundy.

With a view to the conquest of Quebec, Pitt next proposed to General Abercrombie to reduce the French forts on the borders of Lake George and Lake Champlain, and in June a force composed of upwards of 6,000 regular troops, with a suitable complement of artillery, and 9,000 provincial militia, mustered at Albany under his command. Their first point of attack was the strong fort of Ticonderoga, guarding the narrow entrance to Lake Champlain from Lake George, where they encountered the brave Montcalm. The first skirmish, with a detachment of 300 French who had

become separated from the main body of the enemy, resulted in their easy defeat by the right wing of the British army under Lord Howe; but this young and gallant officer fell at the first onset, and his death was followed by serious disaster. The victors bivouacked for the night upon the battle-field, but on the following day Abercrombie, instead of pursuing his advantage, decided on retreat to the point of debarkation. General Bradstreet was however, posted with a strong force within two miles of Montcalm's lines and was there joined by strong reinforcements; and on the 8th of June Abercrombie proceeded to attack the French position, which was defended by nearly 4,000 men, without waiting for his artillery. The movement was ill-judged and reckless, and resulted in the utter defeat of the British, who, notwithstanding the bravery of the troops, and especially of the Highlanders, were compelled to retreat with a loss of 2,000 killed and wounded, whilst the enemy's loss was under 400. This serious reverse was in some measure redeemed soon afterwards, by the surrender, after two days' bombardment by General Bradstreet, of the small garrison in charge of Fort Frontenac, at the eastern end of Lake Ontario. Harassing warfare, with varied success, ensued; but before 1758 closed, a successful attack was made on Fort Du Quesne, where the city of Pittsburg now stands, and Washington, who commanded the advance-guard, planted the British flag on the ramparts of the fort, thenceforward to be known as Fort Pitt, the garrison retreating down the Ohio.

The severity of the winter season necessitated a temporary truce, and the French, disheartened by defeat, and groaning under the exactions of a corrupt and merciless administration, appealed to the mother country for aid; but no reinforcements were sent, and they were left with the hopeless task of opposing, with at the utmost 15,000 men, an army of 50,000, besides reserves. Montcalm did all that valour and patriotism could inspire, strengthening his remaining defences, collecting stores, and encouraging his comrades by his indomitable spirit; but he had little doubt as to the issue of the conflict which was inevitably approaching. In the autumn of 1758 Wolfe returned to England to recruit his health, and in the following year Pitt placed him at the head of an expedition having for its object the conquest of Quebec, whilst General Amherst was charged with the reduction of Ticonderoga and Crown Point and the capture of Montreal, and General Prideaux with the reduction of Fort Niagara, at the point where the river of that name debouches on Lake Ontario. Niagara was the first to fall. On the 26th of July, after three weeks' assault, during which Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a mortar, the garrison surrendered and laid down their arms, the combatants being sent as prisoners to New York, whilst the women were conveyed in safety to France. In the same month Amherst captured the stronghold of Ticonderoga, the French retreating to Crown Point, which was also reduced. The dislodged garrisons took up a strong position at the upper end of Lake Champlain, and Amherst, after some delay, embarked in order to force a passage to the St. Lawrence, but was driven back by adverse winds, and the advent of winter deferred the fulfilment of this design.

The success of the expedition which resulted in the capture of Quebec, and the subsequent surrender of Montreal and cession of Canada, remains to be described. In February, 1759, twenty-two ships of the line, five frigates, nineteen smaller vessels, and a number of transport ships, left

England under the command of Admiral Saunders, and on the 25th of June, after some delay on account of the ice, the fleet anchored off the Isle of Orleans, near Quebec, having on board 8,000 troops under the command of Wolfe, who were at once disembarked and occupied the island. Wolfe lost no time in taking possession of Point Levis, on the right bank of the St. Lawrence and immediately opposite Quebec, a step of great strategic importance, as it enabled him to construct batteries within three-quarters of a mile of the city; and others were planted on the southernmost point of the Isle of Orleans. The position to be attacked, almost unequalled in its natural strength, was rendered apparently impregnable by the precaution of Montcalm, who had fortified the precipitous banks as far north as the river Montmorenci, and for a similar distance above the city. During July and August several unsuccessful attempts were made to dislodge the enemy at the mouth of the Montmorenci, as a preliminary step, and the difficulties of his task were so great that Wolfe almost despaired of success. At length a change of tactics was resolved upon. Leaving behind him a sufficient force for the defence of Point Levis and the Isle of Orleans, Wolfe, early in September, ascended the river with the remainder of his troops, reduced by this necessity and by losses to 3,600 men, under heavy fire from the enemy's batteries, and disembarked them at a point several miles above the city. Here he remained until the night of the 12th of September, when he dropped down the river under cover of the darkness, accompanied by thirty boats carrying 1,600 men, who were put ashore at a small cove which still bears his name, just above Quebec. The boats returned for reinforcements, whilst the disembarked troops climbed the precipitous slopes, surprised and overpowered the French picquets, and noiselessly gained the Heights of Abraham, a continuation of the ridge of rocks on which Quebec is built. In the meantime the attention of Montcalm was diverted from the real point of attack by the increased fire from the batteries of Point Levis, but daybreak revealed to his astonished gaze the British troops in battle array. A call to arms immediately followed, and, without waiting for artillery other than two small field-pieces, Montcalm hastened to the attack, in which 4,828 men were engaged on the side of the British, whilst the French force was estimated at 7,520. This superiority—numerical only, for the French troops were greatly inferior in condition and discipline—induced an attempt to outflank the British on the left, and as this did not succeed, Montcalm advanced against the centre and right wing. The struggle was short, but decisive. In the space of fifteen minutes the French line was shattered, the British troops, charging before the enemy could re-form, drove the fugitive survivors from the field, and the battle was won. The British loss was 57 killed and 600 wounded; that of the French 1,500 killed, wounded, and prisoners. Amongst the slain were the two commanders, Wolfe and Montcalm. Wolfe, who expired at the crisis of the battle, lived long enough to be assured of victory; Montcalm, who survived until the next day, rejoiced on learning that he could not live to see the surrender of Quebec. This event took place five days afterwards, when the troops garrisoning the citadel were allowed to march out with the honours of war, and they were afterwards conveyed to the nearest French port.

In 1760 an attempt was made to retake Quebec, 10,000 men having assembled for that purpose; but an English fleet appeared in the St. Law-

rence, and the besiegers were compelled to retire to Montreal, where the last semblance of resistance was made. Three converging armies, advancing from Quebec, Crown Point, and Albany, reached Montreal on three successive days; resistance was hopeless; on the 8th of September the defending garrison capitulated, and the conquest of Canada was complete.

CHAPTER VII.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT—THEIR GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT.

IT is unnecessary, for the purposes of this Handbook, to carry the history of Canada, as a separate subject, beyond the point reached in the preceding chapter. Towards the close of 1762 the Seven Years' War came to an end, and under the terms of the Treaty of Paris, signed on the 10th of February, 1763, France formally "ceded and guaranteed to His Britannic Majesty, in full right, Canada, with all its dependencies," together with the West India islands of Guadaloupe, Dominica, Martinique, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Tobago, and possessions in the East Indies; whilst Spain yielded Florida, with other territory east of the Mississippi, to which she laid claim. The sovereignty of Great Britain was thus formally affirmed and recognized, and no time was lost in adapting British institutions to the necessities of the colony, the population of which (numbering 65,000 souls) were mostly French Canadians. This appears to have been done with a desire to conciliate those who were called upon to change their allegiance; but their Indian allies did not experience the politic consideration to which they had been accustomed, and their antipathies were moreover excited by the raids of lawless English fur-traders. They were thus in a mood favourable to revolt, and a brave and wily Indian warrior named Pontiac, who had been a staunch ally of the French, conceived the idea of exterminating the English, and restoring the supremacy of the native tribes; and this daring project was engaged in with all the ferocity, barbarity, subtlety, and treachery characteristic of Indian warfare. The conspiracy of Pontiac is one of the most thrilling episodes in colonial history, but we can only give the briefest outline of the tragic story. It seems that Pontiac planned a simultaneous rising of the tribes on the shores of the Upper Lakes in the Ohio valley, and on the borders of the neighbouring settlements. It was determined to gain admission to the forts by various wily devices, to murder the garrisons, and then to fall upon the defenceless colonists and ravage their homesteads. The first object of attack was a fort at Detroit, on the river St. Clair; but here, through a timely warning, the garrison was prepared against surprise. Unfortunately, however, the commandant, Major Gladwyn, underrated the danger he had escaped, and the Indians were allowed to depart. The result was that two days later, greatly increased in numbers, they massacred some neighbouring settlers, and laid siege to the fort—a siege which they maintained for a period of fifteen months, at the end of which time the beleaguered garrison were relieved by a force under General Bradstreet. But many other forts fell an easy prey to treacherous attack. At one (Michillimackinac) the Indians assembled in front of the fort and engaged

in the game of lacrosse, whilst the unsuspecting officers of the garrison looked on; at length a skilful stroke sent the ball through the entrance to the stockade, and as the Indians rushed after it they were armed by their squaws (who had strolled into the enclosure) with hatchets which they had concealed beneath their blankets, and all who were not mercilessly slaughtered were taken prisoners. In this way the terrible programme was carried out, so far as it could be carried out, until the hand of the savage destroyers was stayed: in some cases not a soul was left alive to recount the tale of butchery.

This was a tragic inauguration of the British rule, the ultimate advantages of which the French peasants, who formed the bulk of the population, were not slow to recognize, for it freed them from the feudal rights enforced by the seignors, gave them security such as they had never before enjoyed against the harassing and murderous attacks of their Indian neighbours, and put an end to the merciless exactions which had wasted their substance and discouraged their industry. As an example of the extortion to which they had been subjected, it may be stated that the rapacious and licentious Bigot—a worthy representative of the age of the Grand Monarque—who filled the post of Intendant from 1752 till the capture of Quebec, had, in time of famine, profited by the high prices at which he had sold to the starving colonists provisions and stores sent from France for their succour; had even, when his countrymen were wanting food, aggrandized himself by exporting breadstuffs to the West Indies, thus enhancing their cost at home; and had put an end to financial credit by the lavish issue of paper money, made payable at the Royal Treasury in France, on which a very heavy loss was sustained. But the loss of the colony provoked a formal inquiry into the conduct of the chief functionaries on their return to France, and they were compelled to disgorge twelve million francs of ill-gotten plunder, Bigot himself exchanging a cell in the Bastille for permanent exile.

But for a time there were serious causes for dissatisfaction. In October, 1763, a Royal Proclamation declared that the province of Quebec, the boundaries of which were defined, had been erected into a separate Government, with power to the Governor (General Murray) to summon a General Assembly "as soon as the state and circumstances of the colony would admit thereof," until which time the Governor was to have the legislative assistance of a Council appointed for the purpose. The oaths and declarations prescribed for the members of the Assembly included some which no conscientious Roman Catholic could subscribe, and therefore there was little chance of due representation for the French colonists; but an Assembly was called, and English laws were administered by the Governor and his Council, to the natural discontent of those who hoped for a voice in their own Government. In 1774, after ten years had elapsed without material progress towards the settlement of the Constitution, the Quebec Act was passed, aggravating instead of ameliorating the evils and dangers of the situation. In spite of urgent appeals from both French and English, this ill-judged measure granted no Assembly. It annexed immense territories to the province of Quebec, revoked the Proclamation of 1763, thus reviving the old French laws, except as to criminal procedure, and extended their operation to the British colonists, who were enraged at being deprived of the rights of *habeas corpus* and trial by jury. Its only merit was that it granted to the Roman Catholics the free exercise of their

religion, and confirmed to their clergy their accustomed dues, with a reservation for such provision as the King might deem it expedient to make for the support of a Protestant clergy. It was, to use the words of Lord Chatham, "a most cruel, oppressive, and odious measure, tearing up justice and every good principle by the roots;" one that "would shake the affections and confidence of his Majesty's subjects, and finally lose him the hearts of all the Americans." The words were prophetic; for, although Canada remained true to the British Crown, it cannot be doubted that this measure was greatly instrumental in provoking the revolt which ended two years later in the loss of the other American colonies and the Declaration of Independence. The retention of Canada during this critical period was mainly due to the judicious action of the Governor (Sir Guy Carleton, afterwards created Lord Dorchester), both in his dealings with the colonists, many of whom sympathised with the invaders, and in his defensive measures. At the close of 1775 the province was all but lost. The Fort of Chambly had been captured, partly with the help of the French colonists; Fort St. John had surrendered, Montreal was occupied, and the thirteen revolted colonies were masters of all Canada, with the all-important exception of Quebec. Here, on the last day of the year, the repulse and discomfiture of the attacking forces proved to be the turn of the tide, which a few months later led to the expulsion of the intruder from Canadian soil.

On the 3rd of September, 1783—two years after the surrender of Lord Cornwallis terminated the struggle of the revolted American colonies for independence—a treaty of peace was signed at Paris, under which the boundary line between Canada and the United States, as they were thenceforward called, was defined to be the Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence, the 45th parallel of north latitude, "the highlands dividing the waters falling into the Atlantic from those emptying themselves into the St. Lawrence"—a definition productive of serious disputes at a later period—and the St. Croix river. But in the meantime, notwithstanding the warning conveyed by the loss of the United States, no progress was made towards giving the Canadians a Constitutional Assembly, and their discontent was increased by the harsh administration of General Haldimand, a Swiss by birth, who succeeded Carleton as Governor of the province. In 1783 the British and French addressed petitions to the Imperial Legislature, asking for a House of Assembly, for the restoration of the law of *habeas corpus*, and for equal political rights. An address to the King, in direct opposition to the prayer of the petition, was adopted by the Legislative Council, and had the effect of strengthening the hands of those who, in the Imperial Parliament, were opposed to change. Thus, for a time, the governors and the governed waged war, and meanwhile the colony continued to groan under the provisions of the Quebec Act, men being unable to obtain either liberty or justice. But at length the British Government intimated that it was time to revive the right of *habeas corpus*. The Legislative Council demurred, but the demand, thus backed up by the Imperial Legislature, could not be long resisted, and the last official act of Governor Haldimand was to sign an ordinance re-introducing this great safeguard of personal liberty.

It was not till 1791 that the rule of a Governor, aided solely by a Council nominated by the Crown, was superseded. In that year the

Quebec Act was repealed, and the Constitutional Act (31 Geo. III. c. 31) was passed. This statute divided the Province of Quebec (by a line drawn from Point-au-Baudet, on Lake St. Francis, to Point Fortune, on the Ottawa, and thence along the course of that river to the southern limit of the Hudson's Bay Territory) into the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada; the former, composed mainly of British settlers, consisted of about 50,000 inhabitants; the latter (the old French colony) had increased to upwards of 130,000. Each province was to have a Lieutenant-Governor, and a Legislature composed of a House of Assembly and a Legislative Council. The Lieutenant-Governor was to appoint the Legislative Council, the members of which were to hold their seats for life, and the descendants of such as had hereditary titles conferred on them were to enjoy the like privilege if it were also made hereditary by the Sovereign. The House of Assembly was to be a representative body, chosen by the people, and was to be elected for four years, but might be sooner dissolved by the Governor. The King had a veto on the measures adopted by these Chambers, and all laws in force before 1791 were to remain in operation until they were repealed or amended. The Habeas Corpus Act was extended to both provinces; no taxation was to be imposed by the British Parliament, except such as might be necessary for the regulation of commerce; the Assembly was empowered to raise money for schools, roads, bridges, and other public works; and provision was made for the maintenance of the Protestant clergy by the appropriation of portions of land; but as Lower Canada was chiefly Roman Catholic, such grants were made subject to the approval of the British Parliament. The Legislature for Upper Canada assembled at Newark, at the mouth of the River Niagara, on the 18th of September, 1792, and its earliest proceedings were directed to the assimilation of the law of Canada to that of England in all matters relating to property, civil rights, and trial by jury. Amongst other Acts passed in the first session was one abolishing slavery, and Upper Canada was thus the first to raise its voice authoritatively in condemnation of negro bondage. But the legislative machinery did not work smoothly. The Executive Council, consisting of salaried officials of the Crown, were the chief advisers of the Legislative Council, of which body many of them were members, and had an overbearing weight, in addition to the check provided by the veto of the Sovereign; and the discontent caused by the exercise of these influences fully justified the views of Fox, who, while the Constitutional Act was passing through the House of Commons, expressed his conviction that the only means of retaining distant colonies with advantage is to enable them to govern themselves.

Although this Act, with some modifications, continued in force for fifty years, its failure to fulfil the just legislative requirements of the people was a constant source of discontent and disquietude, and unfortunately reliance was placed upon repression rather than remedy for the maintenance of the authority of the Crown. Antagonism arose between the British and French sections of the population; but it is remarkable that, notwithstanding the internal dissatisfaction which existed, the adherence of Canada to Great Britain was sufficiently close to survive not only the successful struggle of the neighbouring colonies for independence, but also the hostilities which desolated Continental Europe during the early part of the nineteenth century—hostilities in which France and England had so large a share—

and the war of 1812–15 between Great Britain and the United States. In this latter conflict the Americans hoped to profit by the discontent that existed in Canada, but they were utterly mistaken; for, although the Canadians were from time to time on the verge of rebellion against British authority, both French and English colonists stood shoulder to shoulder in loyal support of England throughout the border warfare of that period. As the military resources of the mother country had been greatly wasted in the conflicts of nearly twenty years, the brunt of the contest fell heavily upon the Canadians and their militia, whose tried valour and loyalty, so conspicuously manifested, should have secured for their just claims prompter consideration at the hands of the Imperial Parliament.

The struggle between the rulers and the ruled for predominance in the councils of the colony culminated in 1837 in open disaffection and rebellion. In Upper Canada the mass of the population remained loyal, and the revolt was quelled by the militia, without the aid of Imperial troops; but in Lower Canada the rebellion assumed for a time more serious aspects. The brief struggle with the authorities was somewhat prolonged by the action of the American Government in allowing their frontier to be used by the rebels as a base of hostile operations, and by the organization in the American border towns of secret societies called "Hunters' Lodges;" but by the end of 1838 the disturbances were quelled. About the same time the British Government became alive to the necessity for dealing with the evils complained of by the leaders in what was called "the patriot war." In addition to the old antagonism arising from the want of a really representative Legislature, a fresh element of discord had arisen between the two provinces relative to their respective shares of the import duties, over which the position of Montreal and Quebec gave to Lower Canada undue control. Proposals of legislative union were made from time to time, but had no effective result until the Earl of Durham, a most enlightened and discerning Governor, made in 1838 an able and exhaustive report on the condition of British North America, in which he strongly supported the views of the colonists. "From first to last," he said, "I have discovered in those dissensions which fill the parliamentary history of Canada, that the Assembly has always been at war with the Council relative to powers which are essential to be possessed by the latter, through the very nature of representative institutions." To put matters in the right track, he advised the union of the two provinces, and, pointing to the prosperity of the United States, urged that regions as large and as fertile were open to British subjects, and that "the experiment of keeping colonies and governing them well ought at least to have a trial ere we abandon for ever the vast dominion which might supply the wants of our surplus population, and raise up millions of fresh consumers of our manufactures and producers of a supply for our wants."

Although Lord Durham was compelled, by the attacks made upon him in Parliament, to resign his post and return home a humiliated man, his determined opposition to the old methods of colonial government, and the report (attributed to the pen of his able friend and colleague Mr. Charles Buller) in which it was so plainly set forth, soon bore good fruit. He returned to England in failing health, and in 1840 his promising career was terminated by death, but he lived to see his policy adopted by a successor in the Governorship, Mr. Charles Poulett Thompson; and in

1840 an Act known as the Act of Union was passed, by which Upper and Lower Canada were united into one colony, with one Legislature for the two provinces, consisting of a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly. This Act came into force on the 10th of February, 1841, and for the first time gave the advantages of responsible government to Canada. The Legislature met alternately at Toronto and Quebec, and each province was represented by 62 members, of whom 42 were elected by the colonists, and 20 were appointed by the Crown as the Legislative Council. The members of the Executive Council, like the Ministry in the mother country, only held office so long as they could command a majority in the Assembly.

Mr. Poulett Thompson, who had been greatly instrumental in promoting the Act of Union, was naturally regarded as the fittest person to carry it into effect, and as soon as it came in force he returned to Canada as Viceroy, having, in acknowledgment of his services, been raised to the Peerage as Lord Sydenham, of Kent and Toronto; but he did not long survive to see the results of his work, for in September, 1841, a fatal fall from his horse put an end to his useful career. The Legislature first met at Kingston; three years later Montreal became the seat of Government, and in 1849 it was decided to transfer it to Toronto for two years, and thereafter to hold the sittings at Quebec and Toronto alternately for periods of four years at each place. In 1858 Ottawa was selected as the permanent seat of government, and in 1860 the Legislature met at Quebec. In the same year the Prince of Wales paid a visit to the colony, and drove the last rivet of the magnificent bridge, bearing the name of his Royal mother, which spans the mighty St. Lawrence at a point where it is nearly two miles in width, the most famous memorial of Robert Stephenson's engineering skill. In September, 1860, the imposing pile of buildings which was to form the future home of the Canadian Parliament was built at Ottawa, and in the following year the outbreak of the conflict between the Northern and Southern States caused for a time some anxiety as to Canada. A Royal Proclamation enjoined strict neutrality, but the sympathy of the colonists, themselves pioneers in the extension of freedom to the oppressed negro, was decidedly in favour of the North; and, before the close of the war, no fewer than 50,000 enlisted on that side, while comparatively few engaged in the Confederate cause. All necessary preparation was made for the defence of the colony, but happily this proved unnecessary, and the issue of the struggle was as satisfactory to Canada as it has now become to the great people who were at one time in danger of being permanently weakened by a division of territory and a division of interests. At the close of 1865 the buildings at Ottawa, on which more than £3,000,000 had been expended, being sufficiently near completion, the seat of government was removed from Quebec to that city, where it has since remained.

The advantages derived from the constitutional changes effected in 1841 by the Act of Union were great and immediate, but it was found that the unity of the French inhabitants of Lower Canada, with their undivided interests, gave them a practical advantage when the representatives of Upper Canada had divided views; and this was long a source of irritation and difficulty, the French members being able, at such crises, to turn the scale in favour of their own objects. But the colony had nevertheless

fairly started on a career of vigour and prosperity—a career to which fresh impetus was given from time to time by the passing of various beneficial measures, by the removal of commercial restrictions, by the development of railway enterprise, by the establishment of municipal institutions, by the abolition of seigneurial tenure in Lower Canada, by the consolidation of the legal code, by the advance of education, and in various other ways.

We are now brought to the last great and all-important change in the relations of the British possessions in North America to each other and to the mother country. As early as 1857 a scheme of confederation was projected and warmly espoused, and the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, having agreed to unite on a federal basis—the opposing parties in the Legislature sinking political differences in order to achieve this great result—in 1867 the British North America Act was passed by the Imperial Legislature, providing for the consolidation of the whole of British North America into one political confederation, under the name of the Dominion of Canada. At first this was composed of the four provinces named, Upper and Lower Canada becoming respectively the provinces of Ontario and Quebec; but Manitoba (in 1870), British Columbia (in 1871), and Prince Edward Island (in 1873), were soon added to the Confederation. Provision is also made for the admission of Newfoundland to the Confederation. The southern portion of the North-West Territories has already been divided into four districts, each as large as a European kingdom, under an Order in Council made in 1882—viz. (1) Assiniboia, 95,000 square miles, bounded south by the international boundary, east by the province of Manitoba, north by a line drawn near 52° N. lat., and west by a line between 110° and 111° W. long.; (2) Saskatchewan, 114,000 square miles, bounded south by Assiniboia, east by Lake Winnipeg and the Nelson river, north by a line drawn near 55° N. lat., and west by a continuation of the line marking the corresponding boundary of Assiniboia; (3) Alberta, 100,000 square miles, bounded south by the international boundary, east by Assiniboia and Saskatchewan, west by British Columbia, and north by a continuation of the line bounding Saskatchewan; (4) Athabasca, 122,000 square miles, bounded south by Alberta, west by British Columbia, east by a continuation of the line bounding Assiniboia and Saskatchewan on the west until it reaches Lake Athabasca, and thence following the Slave river to the northern boundary, a line near 60° N. lat. This division is timely and preparatory, and will have the effect of localising points which have been indifferently comprehended, as the districts have each its capital, forming a recognised nucleus for settlement. Before many years have elapsed they will doubtless take rank as provinces of the Dominion of which they form part.

The immense tract of territory, formerly under the control of the Hudson's Bay Company, was transferred to Canada under the provisions of the Rupert's Land Act of 1868, the Company receiving from the Dominion the sum of £300,000 sterling, with grants of land around its trading ports amounting in all to 50,000 acres; in addition to which it is entitled to one-twentieth part of the land, as it becomes surveyed and laid out in townships in the district south of the north branch of the Saskatchewan river, and retains its trading privileges, although they are

no longer exclusive. In the following year legislative provision was made for the survey and provisional government of this most extensive territory, thenceforth known as the North-West Territory.

It should here be stated, incidentally, that when the surveying party sent out by Government arrived at the Red River settlement, in what is now the province of Manitoba, alarm was excited amongst the settlers lest the tenure of their holdings might be endangered; and as no immediate explanation was forthcoming, the newly-appointed Governor of the North-West Territory (Mr. Macdougall) had no sooner arrived than he was met by an armed band, and compelled to retreat. A force was organised for the suppression of the revolt, but the insurgents, led by Louis Riel, attacked a small party of these in a house in Winnipeg, forced them to surrender, and imprisoned them for some months in a fort called Fort Garry, belonging to the Hudson Bay Company, which they had seized. Emboldened by the success of this exploit, Riel demanded a loan of £2,000 from Mr. M'Tavish, the resident Governor, and on its being refused, he broke open the Company's safe, pillaged its stores, arrested Mr. M'Tavish, formed a provisional government and became its President, arresting persons and confiscating property at his pleasure. A counter-movement was organised by the loyal inhabitants, one of whom, Thomas Scott, was captured by the insurgents and shot in cold blood, in pursuance of the sentence of a court-martial, and a Canadian militia officer, Major Boulton, narrowly escaped a like fate. Great excitement was caused throughout Canada by these lawless proceedings, and the Ontario Government offered a reward of 5,000 dollars for the arrest of Riel. Colonel Wolseley (now Lord Wolseley) was at length sent out, with 1,200 men belonging to the 60th Regiment and the Canadian militia, to restore authority; and, after a toilsome march of 400 miles, he reached Fort Garry in August, 1870, to find it abandoned by the insurgents. The Fenian leaders in the United States took advantage of this revolt to foment disaffection, but the general peace of the Dominion was unshaken. In March, 1874, Riel re-appeared at the opening of Parliament at Ottawa, as the elected representative for Provencher, in Manitoba, whereupon a motion was adopted for his expulsion, a true bill having been found against him, as one of the murderers of Thomas Scott, by the Grand Jury of Manitoba. In the meantime, Lepine, a rebel associate, had been tried in Manitoba for the murder of Scott, and sentenced to death. Ultimately, however, an amnesty was granted by the Dominion Parliament to the rebels generally, Riel and Lepine, the leaders of the revolt, being excepted, and sentenced to banishment from the country for a period of five years. The later insurrection of half-breed and Indian rebels, under Riel, which took place in April, 1885, and terminated shortly afterwards in his capture and execution, will be fresh in the reader's recollection.

With respect to the maritime provinces, now included within the Dominion, it should be stated that in 1758 Nova Scotia was granted a Constitution, under which a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a Legislative Assembly, regulated the affairs of the province. New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island had a similar form of government, except that in New Brunswick the Executive Council of the Lieutenant-Governor acted in a legislative capacity. The Governor of Canada did

not interfere in the administration of these Colonies, each of which had a Lieutenant-Governor at its head.

British Columbia and Vancouver's Island, formerly part of the Hudson Bay Company's territory, were formed into separate colonies about 1858, and in 1866 they were placed under one administration. Vancouver's Island owes its name to George Vancouver, who served with Captain Cook in his last two voyages, and was subsequently employed by the British Government in extensive surveys. In 1762 he visited and partially explored the islands lying off the North Pacific Coast, and his name is perpetuated in that of the largest of the group, about 300 miles by 60, with an area of 20,000 square miles. In 1843 the Hudson's Bay Company obtained from the Crown a lease of this island and the adjacent mainland, and six years later it became a Crown colony. Soon after the discovery of gold in California a similar discovery was made in British Columbia, and in 1858 many thousands of adventurers were engaged in prospecting on the banks of the Frazer river and its tributaries. For a time there were international difficulties with the United States. The boundary line having been ambiguously defined as passing through the channel separating Vancouver's Island from the mainland, each country claimed the Island of St. Juan, lying in mid-channel, and each landed an armed force in assertion of its claims, but the matter was adjusted by arbitration. In 1866, as we have said, Vancouver's Island again became part of British Columbia.

The present Constitution of the Dominion of Canada, as settled by the Act of 1867, uniting the North American possessions of Great Britain in one Confederation, is designed to be "similar in principle to that of the United Kingdom." At the head of the Dominion is the Governor-General, who is appointed by the Sovereign from time to time, is assisted by a Privy Council, assumed to consist of past and present advisers of the Crown, but generally understood to be the acting Ministry of the day. He holds office for a period of five years, and his salary is paid by the people of Canada. The system of government is twofold—(1) Federal, (2) Provincial.

1. *Federal Government.*

The seat of the Federal Government is at Ottawa, and the Dominion Legislature is composed of a Senate, the members of which are appointed for life by the Crown, by summons under the Great Seal of the Dominion, on the nomination of the Ministry for the time being; and a House of Commons, the members of which are elected by the people, under a very wide suffrage. The Ministry, to whom the administration of the several departments of government is entrusted, is composed of members of the two Houses; but they are responsible to the House of Commons, not only for all expenditure, but for their tenure of office. They are presided over by a Premier, appointed by the Crown, which adopts the ascertained choice of the people. As in England, the concurrence of the three estates —the Governor-General, as representing the Sovereign, the Senate, and the Commons—is necessary before any measure can become law. The Governor-General has only a negative voice in the Legislature, and can neither originate any measure nor exercise any other independent legislative power. His international duties are very limited, as the Dominion

can neither make war nor conclude treaties, and he neither sends nor receives ambassadors.

The number of senators must not exceed 78 until the admission of Newfoundland to the Confederacy, when it may be increased to 82. They must be thirty years of age, must be natural-born or naturalized subjects of the Queen, must be residents in the several provinces for which they are appointed, and have a property qualification amounting to $4,000. The present number of senators is 75—viz., Ontario, 24; Quebec, 22; New Brunswick, 10; Nova Scotia, 10; Manitoba, 2; British Columbia, 3; Prince Edward Island, 4.

A senator is styled Honourable, and holds his seat for life, subject to certain provisions, one of which is, that if he fails to attend in his place for two consecutive sessions his seat becomes vacant. The Speaker of the Senate is appointed by the Governor-General, and must be a senator, and 15 members (including the Speaker) are necessary to constitute a quorum. All Bills may be initiated in the Senate or the House of Commons indifferently, except money Bills, which must originate in the Commons. But though the Senate cannot vote supplies, it has the power of voting against them.

The House of Commons is also composed of natural-born or naturalized subjects of the Queen, but no property qualification is necessary. It is at present composed of 206 members—viz., Ontario, 88; Quebec, 65; New Brunswick, 16; Nova Scotia, 21; Manitoba, 5; Prince Edward Island, 6; British Columbia, 6.

For electoral purposes each province is divided into districts, each of which returns a member on a majority of votes, which are taken by ballot. Persons filling salaried posts, and others engaged in employment under the Crown (except military officers), and Government contractors, are ineligible as candidates, and there are very stringent provisions against bribery and corrupt practices. The elections, with few exceptions, are made returnable on the same day, and each member sits for five years, the duration of each Parliament, unless it be sooner dissolved by the Governor-General. The members themselves elect their Speaker, and 20 (including the Speaker) constitute a quorum.

The two Houses are convened by summons under the Great Seal of Canada, in the Queen's name, and in each the members must take the oath of allegiance before taking their seats.

To avoid conflicting action between the Dominion Parliament and the Provincial Legislature, the Act of 1867 declares that the former shall have exclusive power to legislate in various matters, including the public debt and property, the regulation of trade and commerce, the raising of money by taxation or loan, the postal service, the census, the military and naval services and defence, navigation and shipping, fisheries, currency and coinage, weights and measures, bankruptcy and insolvency, patents, copyrights, the Indian tribes and their land reserves, marriage and divorce, the criminal law, except the constitution of Courts of Criminal Jurisdiction, &c.; and it has been held that on these matters the Imperial Parliament has renounced its right to interfere. With respect to other matters the Provincial Legislatures have the exclusive right to legislate, such as taxation for provincial purposes, management and sale of the lands of the provinces, establishment and maintenance of prisons, hospitals, and

asylums, licences, municipal institutions, local works and undertakings, the administration of justice, education, &c.

The administration of public affairs is divided into the following twelve Departments, each presided over by a minister, who receives 7,000 dollars (£1,440) per annum for his services:—Justice, Finance, Agriculture, Militia and Defence, Customs, Inland Revenue, Interior Public Works, Railways and Canals, Post Office, Marine and Fisheries, Indian Affairs, and the Department of the Secretary of State. The salary of the Premier is £1,643.

The following is a list of the Governors-General of Canada for the last hundred years, with the dates of their appointment:—

1786. Lord Dorchester.
1797. Major-General Prescott.
1808. Sir James Craig.
1811. Sir George Prevost.
1813. Sir Gordon Drummond.
1816. Sir John Cope Sherbrooke.
1818. Duke of Richmond.
1819. Sir Peregrine Maitland.
1820. Earl of Dalhousie.
1828. Sir James Kempt.
1830. Lord Aylmer.
1835. Lord Gosford.
1838. Earl of Durham.
1838. Sir John Colborne (afterwards Lord Seaton).
1839. Hon. Charles Poulett Thompson (afterwards Lord Sydenham).
1842. Sir Charles Bagot.
1843. Sir Charles Theophilus Metcalfe.
1845. Earl Cathcart.
1847. Earl of Elgin.
1855. Sir Edmund Walker Head.
1861. Lord Monck.
1868. Lord Lisgar.
1872. Earl of Dufferin.
1878. Marquis of Lorne.
1883. Marquis of Lansdowne.

2. *Provincial Government*

The several provinces have each a Legislature, for the control of their own local affairs, with a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Federal Government, who is the chief of the Provincial Executive. The province of Ontario has only one Chamber (the Legislative Assembly), and a responsible Ministry; the province of Quebec has two Chambers and a responsible Ministry, as have also New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and some other provinces. The Lieutenant-Governors of the provinces are appointed by the Governor-General, who has power to disallow acts of the Provincial Legislatures within one year after their enactment, in the same way as an Act of the Dominion Parliament may be disallowed, within two years, by the Imperial Government.

In the province of Ontario the Legislative Assembly is composed of 88 representative members, and for electoral purposes the province is divided into a corresponding number of districts, differing from those which send members to the Dominion Legislature. The members are elected for four years, and no property qualification is necessary. The Executive Council consists of six members, who act as the Ministry of the province. The Legislature meets every year at Toronto.

In the province of Quebec the Legislative Council is composed of 24 members appointed for life by the Lieutenant-Governor; the Legislative Assembly consists of 65 members representing the several districts of the province. The seat of Government is at Quebec.

The provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick have each a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly. The former, in each province,

consists of 17 members; the latter, in Nova Scotia, is composed of 37, and in New Brunswick of 41 members.

The provinces of Manitoba and British Columbia have each a Legislative Assembly, consisting in the one case of 20, and in the other of 25 members.

The province of Prince Edward Island has a Legislative Council of 13 members, and a Legislative Assembly of 33 members, both Houses being elected by the people.

The government of the North-West Territory is at present administered by a Lieutenant-Governor and a Council partly elective and partly appointed by the Privy Council of the Dominion.

An excellent system of municipal government prevails in the various provinces, organised under the Acts of the local legislatures, for dealing with local taxation for the construction and maintenance of roads, for schools and other purposes.

High Commissioner of Canada.

It should be added that an important official, styled High Commissioner of Canada, is now specially charged with the supervision of the interests of the Dominion in England, and occupies a *quasi*-diplomatic position at the Court of St. James' as its resident agent and representative. The present occupant of the office (Sir Charles Tupper, G.C.M.G., C.B.) is a member of the Queen's Privy Council for Canada.

CHAPTER VIII.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.

THE administration of justice is under the cognizance of a distinct department, in charge of a Minister who is, by virtue of his office, Attorney-General of Canada, with duties similar to those performed by the corresponding functionary in England. He is the legal adviser of the Governor-General, superintends all matters connected with the administration of justice outside the jurisdiction of the provinces, watches legislation, and takes charge of litigation affecting the Crown or any public department.

Justice is administered, as in England, by Judges, Police Magistrates, and Justices of the Peace. The Judges are appointed by the Governor-General in Council, for life, from amongst the foremost men at the Bar in their respective provinces; by their ability, learning, and uprightness they well maintain the best traditions of English judicature. Police Magistrates are appointed in all cities and towns having more than 5,000 inhabitants, and sit daily for the adjudication of ordinary police cases, and also for the disposal of certain civil cases, such as those relating to the non-payment of wages, &c.

The highest Court is the Supreme Court of Canada, composed of a Chief Justice and five Puisne Judges, and exercising appellate jurisdiction throughout the Dominion, in both civil and criminal cases. This Court holds three sessions in the year, at Ottawa. The only other Dominion

Court is the Exchequer Court of Canada, presided over by the same judges; but its sittings may be held at any place in Canada, according to circumstances. The Provincial Courts include the Court of Chancery, the Court of Queen's Bench, the Court of Error and Appeal, the Superior Courts, the County Courts, the General Sessions and Division Courts.

The criminal and civil procedure is generally analogous to that in force in England, as are also the duties of coroners, and trial by jury prevails everywhere throughout the Dominion.

The Police force forms part of the municipal system, and the expenses thereof are defrayed by local taxation, except in the case of a very small force maintained by the Dominion in connection with the Parliament buildings at Ottawa and the shipping in certain ports.

CHAPTER IX.

MILITIA AND DEFENCE.

THE organization of the Militia and the defence of the Dominion are also under the charge of a Minister, whose administration extends to fortifications, gunboats, ordnance, arms, and other munitions of war. The command-in-chief of all forces, both military and naval, is vested in the Queen.

The Militia is divided into the Active and the Reserve Militia. The Active Militia is composed of the Volunteers, enrolled by enlistment, who serve for three years in time of peace. There is a small regular force of infantry, cavalry and artillery in connection with the schools of military instruction, which are established at various places in the Dominion. The Reserve Militia is composed of all who are not included in the Active division. British subjects by birth or naturalization, between the ages of eighteen and sixty, may in case of special emergency be called upon to serve in the following order—First, unmarried men, or widowers without children, between the ages of eighteen and thirty; second, unmarried men, or widowers without children, between the ages of thirty and forty-five; third, married men, or widowers with children, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five; fourth, men between the ages of forty-six and sixty.

There are twelve military districts in the Dominion—four in Ontario, three in Quebec, and one each in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Manitoba, British Columbia, and Prince Edward Island. Schools of Instruction are established in the garrison towns, and there is a Royal Military College at Kingston.

It should be added here, that at the commencement of 1884 offers were made to raise a force for service with the Imperial troops in Egypt or elsewhere, and the Dominion Government expressed its readiness to sanction recruiting with this object. The first application of this kind, made by Major-General Laurie, was followed by many others, but the British Government could not take advantage of them, as some time must be occupied in organisation and equipment; and happily at a later period such loyal help was not needed. These overtures were, however, invaluable as evidence of the feeling of Canada towards the mother country,

and the Queen expressed her high appreciation of the patriotic spirit by which they were prompted.

A number of Canadian *voyageurs* were employed in connection with the Nile Expedition in 1884–5, and their services on that occasion have been very highly spoken of.

CHAPTER X.

FINANCE, CUSTOMS, AND INLAND REVENUE.

THESE three departments are each under the charge of a responsible Minister of the Crown, and the three Ministers, together with the Minister of Justice, form a Board called the Treasury Board, acting as a Committee of the Privy Council in relation to all matters connected with the Finance Department, which has the management of the revenue of the Dominion, including all public moneys arising from the Customs and other duties, from the Post Office, from tolls on canals, &c., and also of the Dominion expenditure. A Board of Audit proposes and submits to the Minister of Finance the public accounts annually laid before Parliament, and the financial year commences on the 30th of June. The Finance Department also regulates the currency. The Department of Customs is charged with the collection of Custom duties, and of the tolls on public canals. The Inland Revenue Department manages the collection of excise and stamp duties, internal taxes, and bridge and ferry tolls; and has charge also of weights and measures, the administration of laws relating to the felling of timber, the inspection and analysis of food, &c.

The inland revenue of Canada—derived entirely from indirect taxation—during the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1885, amounted to $6,917,635, of which $4,281,027 was raised from spirits, $477,184 from malt, and $1,589,290 from tobacco. Of the last-named article, 10,509,217 lbs. were manufactured, of which 600,493 lbs. were exported.

The total receipts for the Dominion in 1885 were $78,418,843,* and the receipts to the credit of the Consolidated Fund were $32,797,001. The payments from the Consolidated Fund were $35,037,060. The deficit was owing to the unforeseen expenditure in connection with the outbreak in the North West in the spring of 1885. These two last amounts represent the ordinary revenue and expenditure.

The total amount of the debt of the Dominion on the 1st of July, 1885, was $264,703,607; but against this must be placed assets (Sinking Fund, &c.) amounting to $68,295,915, making the net amount of debt $196,407,692, or about 43 dollars per head. The total interest on the debt chargeable against the Consolidated Fund for the same year was $10,162,275, equal to 2 dollars 30 cents per head. The average rate of interest paid was 3·84.

* The monetary system in Canada, like that of the United States, is a decimal system. The dollar (indicated by the sign $) is equivalent to 100 cents, and a pound sterling is worth $4·87. In order to arrive roughly at the relative value of large amounts, the pound may be reckoned as five dollars.

The total amount expended on Capital Account during the same year was $13,220,185.

Since the confederation of the Dominion in 1867, a great advance has been made in banking operations. The banks in Quebec and Ontario alone, had in 1867 a paid-up capital of about six millions sterling, and this, in 1885, a period of eighteen years, had nearly doubled—the amount being then over eleven millions. In the same time the deposits advanced from six millions sterling to seventeen millions, not including the deposits of the Dominion and Provincial governments. But the most remarkable expansion has been shown in the cases of the Post Office and Dominion Savings Banks, in the Loan Societies, and in the Savings Banks in the Province of Quebec that are included in the returns of Savings Banks. It may be stated generally that the deposit accounts in these institutions amount to about eleven and a half millions in 1885, against half a million in 1868.

CHAPTER XI.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

THE confederation of the Dominion gave a great impetus to trade, as may be seen from the statistics relating to exports and imports. In 1868 the total exports amounted to $57,567,888; in the year 1884–5 they were $89,238,361. In 1868 the total imports were $73,459,644; in 1884–5 they were $108,941,486. Thus the total trade with Great Britain and with foreign countries, increased from $131,027,532 in 1868 to $198,179,847 in 1884–5, whilst the duties collected increased from $8,819,431 to $19,133,558.

For the year ended 30th June, 1885, the total imports into Canada were $108,941,486, and the total exports $89,238,361. The total exports of actual products (which form about six-sevenths of the total exports, and afford the best evidence as to the actual state of trade) amounted to $76,183,518. These exports, which are exclusively the produce of the Dominion, and do not include articles in transit not the produce of Canada, most of which come from the western parts of the United States, are thus classified :—

Produce of the Mines	$3,639,537
,, ,, Fisheries	7,960,001
,, ,, Forest	20,989,708
Animals and their products	25,337,104
Agricultural products	14,518,293
Manufactured products	3,181,501
Miscellaneous articles	557,374
Total	$76,183,518

The above figures include the following items of exportation :—

Produce of Canada.	Value.	Produce of Canada.	Value.
MINING PRODUCTS—	$		$
Coal, 479,706 tons	1,468,166	Copper, 1,257 tons	246,230
Gold-bearing quartz, dust and nuggets	999,007	Iron, 54,367 tons.	132,074
Gypsum, 116,415 tons	120,046	Lead	36
Antimony, ore, 720 tons	33,700	Manganese, 748 tons	22,790
		Silver, 31 tons	7,539

Produce of Canada.	Value.
	$
MINING PRODUCTS—*cont:*	
Phosphate of Lime, 18,984 tons	362,288
Slate, 377 tons	4,642
Sand and Gravel, 90,015 tons	23,590
Stone and Marble, 15,736 tons	52,206
Salt, 107,523 bushels	12,326
Mineral Oil, 954,966 galls.	27,303
ANIMALS AND THEIR PRODUCTS—	
Horses, 11,978	1,554,629
Horned Cattle, 143,003	7,377,777
Swine, 1,652	7.283
Sheep, 335,043	1,261,071
Other animals and Poultry	175,475
Bones, 59,203 cwt.	53,345
Butter, 7,330,788 lbs.	1,430,905
Cheese, 79,655,367 lbs.	8,265,240
Eggs, 11,512,279 dozens	1,826,729
Furs, dressed	9,204
,, undressed	1,617,622
Grease, 43,673 lbs.	1,375
Hides and Horns.	601,111
Honey, 3,278 lbs.	440
Lard, 63,559 lbs.	5,491
Meats, 10,210,793 lbs.	854,145
Sheeps' Pelts, 73,324	20,515
Tallow, 62,624 lbs.	4,034

Produce of Canada.	Value.
	$
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS—	
Wool, 989,925 lbs.	196,178
Bran, 62,881 cwt.	46,677
Flax, 7,060 cwt.	59,904
Fruits, green,	635,240
Flour and Meal, 196,899 barrels	826,597
Grain, 17,020,744 bushels	10,851,662
Hay, 134,939 tons	1,270,525
Hops, 103,438 lbs.	17,292
Malt, 374,961 bushels	280,137
Maple Sugar, 11,704 lbs.	1,016
Potatoes, 660,715 bushels	234,812
Seeds.	116,267
Straw, 3,027 tons	13,788
Vegetables.	75,062
MANUFACTURED PRODUCTS—	
Agricultural Implements	22,640
Books, Maps, and Pamphlets	155,511
Extract of hemlock bark, 15,766 barrels	203,211
Leather manufactured	513,380
Machinery	86,163
Musical instruments	144,565
Sewing machines, 9,418	69,235
Ships (sold)	246,277
Wood manufactures	685,999

The exports of manufactured products also include biscuits, candles, carriages, clothing, cordage, cottons, furs, glass, grindstones, ground gypsum, hats and caps, india-rubber, junk and oakum, lime, liquors and wine, oil and oil-cake, rags, soap, starch, steel and steelware, wrought stone and marble, sugar, tobacco, vinegar, woollens, &c.

The amounts of imports from, and exports to, the various European States in 1884-5 were as follows:—

Countries.	Imports from.	Exports to.
	$	$
Great Britain	41,406,777	41,871,991
France	1,935,581	303,309
Germany	2,121,269	264,075
Holland	337,785	24,094
Belgium	479,260	72,385
Spain	349,215	132,695
Portugal	60,366	166,730
Switzerland	217,666	—
Austria	95,211	—
Italy	108,162	147,550
Turkey	168,809	34
Greece.	92,733	—
Denmark	667	930
Sweden and Norway	33,030	83,596
Russia	9,408	—

This chapter on the trade of Canada would be incomplete without some mention of the growth of the agricultural exports. The cattle business has sprung from insignificance to its present proportions in the last ten years, and the Dominion is now the largest exporter of cheese to Great Britain. Special attention is therefore invited to the above tables.

CHAPTER XII.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY.

THE general state of the trade and industries of Canada was so well set forth in the Budget speech delivered last year by the Finance Minister (the Hon. Sir Leonard Tilley) in his place in Parliament, that condensed extracts, emanating from so high an authority, will be acceptable, though they involve questions of policy that cannot be discussed here, in relation to the protective fiscal system adopted by the Dominion Legislature after the General Election of 1878.

"I may state," he said, "that there was a large increase in the trade of the Dominion in the last five years. The increased production of our manufactures must have diminished the value of the imports of manufactured goods for the five years to the extent of $100,000,000. When I say that the increased wages paid during the last year to the men and women employed was $15,000,000, you may fairly infer that the interest on the outlay on buildings, and profits to manufacturers, would bring it to $20,000,000, or for the five years $100,000,000. The imports have been necessarily decreased, and the balance of trade would have been that much larger against us had not these factories been built, and these industries established; and it would have been, I think, unfortunate if such had been the condition of things. So much for the balance of trade. I do not desire to see the consumption of the people diminished; but while the Government desire to see it increased, they prefer to see them consuming articles produced and manufactured in the country, rather than that they should be imported from outside and involve the necessity of sending money out of the country to pay for them. There is nothing perhaps that can mark more clearly the increase of these industries than the increased demand for machinery; and it is well known by every man engaged in the manufacture of machinery that the orders he has received since 1879 have been largely in excess of those of the previous five years. In addition to this, the machinery imported from abroad from 1874 to 1879 was only $3,100,018 in value, whilst the value of that imported from 1879 to 1884 was $8,597,300. I think this is an indication that new vitality has been given to industries requiring this increased amount of machinery. Then take the article of raw hides, to show the development of the leather manufacture. We find that the raw hides imported from 1874 to 1879 were valued at $6,419,294, and from 1879 to 1884, $9,517,744, evidence of the increased demand for the manufacture of boots and shoes, and other articles made from leather. In 1878 only 6 per cent. of the sugar consumed in the Dominion came direct from the country of its production; last year 89 per cent. came from the country of its production, and only 11 per cent. from Great Britain and the United States. That is my answer to the statement that the duty on sugar meant a great loss to the revenue, and an increased cost to the consumer. The revenue received during the last year, on account of the increased quantity of raw sugar imported, although the value was low, was greater than the revenue of previous years. All this shows that we have not only obtained the usual revenue from sugar, but we have given employment to a large number of people: we

have restored to Canada an important industry. To show that an impetus has been given to the cotton trade since 1879, I will quote from the Trade Returns. From 1874 to 1879 the imports of raw cotton amounted to 31,847,880 lbs.; from 1879 to 1884 they amounted to 94,038,219 lbs., and their value increased from $3,568,185 to $10,531,532. This, I think, will show that an impetus has been given to this industry, that there has been a large amount of cotton manufactured in the Dominion, that it has been purchased by the Canadian consumers at a low rate, and that, considering the number of spindles that are now in Canada, and the demand that must exist for these goods, the day is not far distant when all these manufactories will be profitably employed.

"Then there is the question of the effect of the general policy upon the development of the industries of the country . . . There has been laid on the table of the House the result of the inquiries of two gentlemen who were appointed by the Government to examine the leading factories of the Dominion, in order to show their development since 1878. It is estimated by them that they have visited factories employing about two-thirds of the people engaged in manufacturing industries, and these are the results:—

Year.	Factories.	Hands.	Yearly Wages.	Products.	Capital inve ted.
1884 . .	2,096	77,346	$24,396,165	$102,870,166	$67,293,373
1878 . .	1,501	42,794	13,833,733	49,963,282	37,819,931
Increase in five years	595	34,552	$10,562,432	$52,906,884	$29,473,442

"If we add 50 per cent. to these results, it will appear that the adoption of this policy in 1879 has increased the number of factories in Canada by 892, the number of hands by 51,828, the yearly wages paid to the people employed by $15,843,648, the products by $79,360,326, and the capital invested by $44,210,163.

"Coming to people's deposits in banks, we find as follows:—

	1874 to 1879.	1879 to 1884.
Deposits in chartered banks . .	$8,499,942	$25,003,354
Deposits in savings banks . .	1,997,422	20,009,853
Railway and loan companies . .	5,787,576	9,512,731
	$16,284,940	$55,425,938

"It may be said that the increased amount of deposits in savings banks is no evidence of the prosperity of the country; but I consider it an evidence of the prosperity of the country, and of the financial condition of the people, that they have increased their deposits in the banks from $16,000,000 to $55,000,000. The capital expended on factories since 1878–79, as shown by the returns presented, is something like $44,000,000; so that from 1879 to the end of June last, by the deposits in banks, by the purchase of debentures, and by expenditure on factories, the people of Canada have invested about $100,000,000. I might go further, and point to the additional mileage of railways; to the different cities, where millions have been expended in the construction of houses that have found tenants; and to other investments since 1879, to show that the people of Canada, and especially the masses of the people, must have had a very handsome surplus from their earnings which they have thus laid by for a rainy day. . . Then, with reference to the failures in Canada, from 1875 to 1879

inclusive, we find that the number was 9,185, with liabilities amounting to $133,128,724. From 1879 to 1885 there were 5,040 failures, with liabilities of $57,467,724. Taking 56,000 traders, the number engaged in business during the five years ending 31st December, 1879, the yearly average would be equal to one failure to 30½ traders; and taking 69,994 traders as the basis of the five years ending 31st December, 1885, the yearly average would be equal to one failure to 69½ traders." Applying to the general condition of the country a test suggested as trustworthy by an opposition speaker, viz., the material condition of the lowest class of honest labour, the hon. gentleman added:—"The statement of the Bureau of Statistics of Ontario shows that the blacksmiths and their helpers, the boiler-makers and their helpers, the bricklayers, the carriage builders, the carpenters, the cigar-makers, the cotton-mill men and their labourers, the machinists, the moulders, the painters, the plasterers and their labourers, the printers, the, sewing-machine men, the tin and copper smiths, and the tool-makers, have a surplus averaging $48 at the end of the year, comparing their receipts with their expenses. It is stated that the labourer works 265 days in the year, that he averages $1 13 cents per day, that his yearly wages are $304 and his expenditure $255, which leaves $49 for him as a surplus."

The last Canadian Census (taken in 1881) furnishes the following comparative statement relative to the industries of the Dominion :—

	1871.	1881.
Amount of Capital invested	$77,964,020	$165,302,623
Value of raw material used	124,907,846	179,918,593
Aggregate value of productions	221,617,773	309,676,068
Number of persons employed	187,942	254,935
Aggregate wages paid	40,851,009	59,429,002
Average wages for each person	217	233

The following tabulated statement, derived from the same source, shows the amount of capital invested in trade, the number of persons employed, and the annual value of the products in the several provinces of the Dominion in 1881 :—

Provinces.	Capital invested.	Persons employed.	Value of Products.
	$		$
Prince Edward Island	2,085,776	5,767	3,400,208
Nova Scotia	10,183,060	20,390	18,575,326
New Brunswick	8,425,282	19,922	18,512,658
Quebec	59,216,992	85,673	104,662,258
Ontario	80,950,847	118,308	157,989,870
Manitoba	1,383,331	1,921	3,413,026
British Columbia	2,952,835	2,871	2,926,784
The Territories	104,500	83	195,938
Totals	165,302,623	254,935	309,676,068

The corresponding totals for 1871 were—Capital invested, $77,964,020; persons employed, 187,942; value of products, $221,617,773; so that during the ten years there was an increase of 112 per cent. in the capital invested, of 35½ per cent. in the number of persons employed, and of nearly 40 per cent. in the value of products.

The following details illustrate the condition (according to the Census of 1881) of various branches of industrial enterprise in which upwards of 1,000 hands were at that time employed, or in which the aggregate capital invested, or the annual value of the products, amounted to upwards of $1,000,000 :—

Industries.	Capital invested.	No. of hands employed.	Total annual value of products.
	$		$
Agricultural implements	3,995,782	3,656	4,405,397
Bakeries of all sorts	2,509,621	3,963	9,476,975
Blacksmithing	3,056,653	12,451	7,172,469
Bookbinding	636,624	1,036	1,445,708
Boots and shoes	6,491,042	18,949	17,895,903
Breweries	4,592,990	1,411	4,768,447
Brick and tile making	946,729	4,129	1,541,892
Cabinet and furniture	3,943,419	5,857	5,471,742
Car and locomotive works	1,630,598	3,154	3,956,361
Carpenters and joiners	1,242,531	5,702	3,893,910
Carriage making	3,798,861	8,713	6,579,082
Cheese factories	1,021,435	2,003	5,464,454
Cooperages	759,311	3,277	1,808,929
Cotton factories	3,476,500	3,527	3,759,412
Distilleries	1,303,000	285	1,790,800
Dressmaking and millinery	1,601,239	7,838	4,926,871
Engine building	990,300	1,061	1,338,000
Fittings and foundry work in brass, iron, lead, &c.	1,797,897	2,194	2,684,131
Flour and grist mills	13,857,923	6,472	41,772,372
Foundries and machine working	7,675,911	7,789	8,863,957
Furriers and hatters	1,934,862	2,350	3,352,961
Gas-works	5,358,490	512	1,173,181
Hosiery manufactories	630,821	1,556	1,385,730
Iron smelting furnaces and steel making	2,172,100	974	1,197,514
Lime-kilns	309,354	2,537	707,132
Match factories	564,847	1,062	511,250
Meat curing	1,449,677	852	4,084,133
Musical instrument making	669,379	941	1,220,195
Nail and tack factories	1,245,500	951	1,689,450
Oil refineries	1,812,700	490	4,049,685
Paint and varnish works	712,415	281	1,311,300
Paper manufactories	2,237,950	1,520	2,446,693
Preserved foods	1,222,558	8,453	2,685,861
Printing offices	4,291,136	5,311	4,742,904
Rolling mills	697,500	699	1,026,900
Saddle and harness making	1,323,845	2,911	3,233,973
Sash, door and blind factories	1,996,858	2,878	4,872,362
Saw-mills	25,487,233	2,085	38,541,752
Sewing-machine factories	921,260	1,188	1,048,277
Shingle making	448,147	2,389	766,998
Ship yards	1,570,916	4,454	3,557,258
Shirt, collar and tie making	441,951	1,491	1,255,614
Soap and candle making	916,025	479	1,956,653
Stone and marble cutting	835,760	1,991	1,846,483
Sugar refineries	2,150,000	723	9,627,000
Tailors and clothiers	5,719,729	18,029	15,102,963
Tanneries	6,386,222	5,491	15,144,535
Tin and sheet-iron working	1,993,054	3,685	2,738,246
Tobacco working	1,829,420	3,757	3,060,306
Wool-cloth making	5,272,376	6,877	8,113,055

In many branches of industry the annual value of the products has since been largely increased. In tobacco, for example, the total amount manufactured in the year 1884–5 was 10,509,217 lbs., while 11,061,514 lbs. were taken for consumption, and 600,493 lbs. were exported. The woollen manufacture now employs 450 carding and fulling mills, 90 hosiery factories, and 1,300 other woollen-cloth mills, employing a total of 10,000 hands, and producing goods to the annual value of about $11,000,000, in addition to which a large proportion of the hosiery (at least one-third) is made by thrifty housewives with the old-fashioned spinning-wheel and by hand-knitting, as in the province of Ontario, or by means of knitting-machines, as in Quebec. In cotton factories the gross capital invested in 1883 amounted to $8,850,000, and the estimated product of the single item, cloth, was about 115,000,000 yards.

The following list of articles now made in Canada, and which were not made in the Dominion in 1878, further illustrates the industrial development:—Iron-bridge building, sugar refining, cotton-printing, rice-hulling, and the manufacture of cutlery, emery wheels, pins, clocks, haircloth, enamelled oilcloths, jute, felt goods, organ reeds, writing-papers, silver table-ware, organ and piano keyboards, Britannia metal-work, cashmere and other dress goods, glucose, steel, and many lines of textiles in both cotton and wool. It may be added that while in 1881, 85 per cent. of the railway supplies of all kinds needed by the Canadian Pacific Railway were bought in the United States, in 1884 the Company did not go outside the Dominion for more than 7 or 8 per cent. of such supplies. Four-fifths of the rolling-stock are now manufactured in Canada, with the exception of the sleeping-cars, the construction of which will soon be undertaken at home.

CHAPTER XIII.

RAILWAYS, TELEGRAPHS, CANALS, SHIPPING, AND POSTAL SERVICE.

CANADA has not been slow to appreciate the advantages to be derived from an extensive railway system, so important an auxiliary in the development of our colonies, and during the decade 1875–84 the mileage opened for traffic has been very nearly doubled. In 1875 there were 4,800 miles in operation, and in 1884 this had increased to 9,575 miles, 852 miles more than in 1883. The most important line is the great Canadian Pacific Railway, which stretches across the entire continent from Montreal to Port Moody, on the coast of British Columbia, and indeed for a few miles beyond it, for its western terminus is at Coal Harbour, to be known in future as Vancouver, a total distance of about 3,000 miles. The main line passes from Quebec to Montreal through Ottawa, Carleton Junction, Renfrew, Pembroke, North Bay, Sudbury Junction, Port Arthur, Ignace, Rat Portage, Winnipeg, Portage la Prairie, Carberry, Brandon, Virden, Moosomin, Broadview, Qu'Appelle, Regina, Moose Jaw, Swift Current, Maple Creek, Medicine Hat, Crowfoot, Calgary, Stephen (on the summit of the Rocky Mountains), and a host of other places; and the first through train to the Rocky Mountains left Montreal at the end of November 1885.

There are also many branch lines radiating from Montreal, Ottawa (to Toronto and other towns), Winnipeg, Port Arthur, and the junctions mentioned above, extending upwards of 1,100 miles additional, so that this immense system—the most extensive in the British Empire—has a total mileage of more than 4,000 miles. The line is already in operation from Quebec to the Rocky Mountains, and through trains will be running from the Atlantic to the Pacific in June 1886. In addition to this, there are the various branches of the Grand Trunk Railway, extending over nearly 2,600 miles, forming a network of lines between the great lakes, and extending to Montreal, Quebec and Lake Champlain, and other places; the Intercolonial Railway, skirting the right bank of the St. Lawrence, and traversing the Provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, 847 miles; the Midland, the New Brunswick, the Northern, the North Shore, the South Eastern, and other systems, extending over many hundreds of miles. Indeed, there are in various parts of the Dominion about fifty lines of railway, with a mileage, on the 30th June, 1884, of 9,575 miles, while the rails had been laid for 377 miles more, and 1,562 miles were under construction. It is also proposed to construct a line, 600 miles in length, between the city of Winnipeg and Hudson's Bay, and the survey of the route has been completed. This important project, when carried out, will shorten the distance between the Canadian North-West and Liverpool, for four or five months in the year, by a thousand miles.

It is impossible to overrate the importance of this extensive railway system, not only as affording rapid transit between the several parts of the Dominion, but also from a military point of view, and because of its important bearing on Imperial interests. Fortunately, in the survey and construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway, it was found that the natural advantages were much greater than in any other part of North America. Cuttings and embankments are unnecessary on the level prairie; except at the stations there is only a single track, slightly raised above the adjacent ground, and without boundary fences. The Rocky Mountains, however, presented great engineering difficulties, and more than 300 miles of the line have been cut through the solid rock. Towards its completion no fewer than 25,000 men were engaged in its construction. The highest pass (in the Rocky Mountains) was originally estimated at 3,372 feet above the sea-level, whilst the Central Pacific Railway, terminating at San Francisco, has to reach an elevation of 7,534 feet. The distance from San Francisco to New York by the Central Pacific is 3,363 miles, whilst the distance from Port Moody to Montreal by the Canadian Pacific is only 2,895, so that the latter starts with a decided advantage in the competition for the trans-continental traffic. Further, the distance from Japan, China, and the Pacific coast generally to Liverpool is from 1,000 to 1,200 miles less by the Canadian Pacific than *viâ* the United States' Lines. The Canadian Pacific Company have obtained from the Dominion Government, in addition to large subsidies in money and constructed railways, a grant of 25,000,000 acres of land to assist in making the line, and offer their surplus lands at $2\frac{1}{2}$ (10*s*.) an acre, with conditions requiring cultivation.

The following additional statistics further illustrate the extent and growth of the Canadian railway system:—

Year ended 30th June.	Paid-up Capital.	Mileage in operation.	Passengers Carried.	Tons of Freight Carried.	Earnings.	Working Expenses.
	$				$	$
1876	317,795,468	5,157	5,544,814	6,331,757	19,358,084	15,802,721
1877	326,328,976	5,574	6,073,233	6,859,796	18,742,053	15,290,091
1878	360,617,186	6,143	6,443,024	7,883,472	20,520,078	16,100,102
1879	362,068,138	6,484	6,523,816	8,348,810	19,925,066	16,188,282
1880	371,051,192	6,891	6,462,948	9,938,858	23,561,447	16,840,705
1881	389,285,700	7,260	6,943,671	12,065,323	27,987,509	20,121,418
1882	415,611,810	7,530	9,352,335	13,575,787	29,027,789	22,390,708
1883	494,253,046	8,805	9,488,625	13,575,787	33,228,865	24,683,720
1884	557,614,469	9,575	9,982,358	13,712,269	33,422,404	25,595,332

The Government maintain and work 1,158 miles of railway. This includes the Intercolonial Railway and its extensions, the Eastern Extension Railway (80 miles), and 199 miles of railway in Prince Edward Island.

The waterways of Canada being closed by frost during three or four months of every year, the railways are especially valuable for the maintenance of traffic, which, in the year 1884–5, produced receipts amounting in the aggregate to $33,421,705. During the same period the casualties were 227 killed and 796 injured.

Telegraphs.

The telegraphs are in the hands of chartered companies, the most important of which is the Great North-Western Company of Canada. This company has a capital of $3,500,000, with 2,000 offices, and 2,500 employes, and has 31,673 miles of wire in operation. The ordinary message rate is 25 cents (1*s.*) for 10 words, inclusive of address and signature and one cent for each additional word; at this rate a message is conveyed a distance of 1,300 miles. Special newspaper reports are sent for 25 cents per 100 words, and so largely is this tariff made use of, that the reports received at Toronto in one year amounted to 10,807,668 words.

It is stated that before many months have passed, an independent system of electric telegraph will be opened by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. As a commencement the company is already erecting between Montreal and Winnipeg wires of exceptionally large capacity.

The telephone is also in operation in the Canadian cities and towns: in Ottawa alone about 100 miles of wire are laid.

Canals and River Navigation.

One of the most important features of the eastern portion of the Dominion is the extensive series of Canals artificially constructed to make the rivers completely navigable, and to convert them and the great lakes into a continuous waterway. The canal systems which are under Government control

are six in number, and the most important is the St. Lawrence system, comprising ten canals, altogether 71¾ miles in length, and affording uninterrupted navigation from the Straits of Belle Isle to Port Arthur, at the head of Lake Superior, a total distance of 2,260 statute miles. The distance to Duluth is 2,384 miles. The following table of mileage shows the positions of these canals, and gives an idea of the extent of the waterways :—

	Statute Miles.
Straits of Belle Isle to Father Point	643
Father Point to Rimouski	6
Rimouski to Quebec	168
Quebec to Three Rivers	74
Three Rivers to Montreal	86
Lachine Canal	8½
Lachine to Beauharnois	15¼
Beauharnois Canal	11¼
St. Cecile to Cornwall	32¾
Cornwall Canal	11½
River and *Farran's Point Canal*	16¼
Rapide Plat Canal	4
River and *Point Iroquois Canal*	7½
Junction and Galops Canals	4⅜
Galops Rapids to Kingston	66⅜

	Statute Miles.
Kingston to Port Dalhousie	170
Welland Canal (Port Dalhousie to Port Colborne)	26¾
Port Colborne to Amherstburg	232
Amherstburg to Windsor	18
Windsor to foot of St. Mary's Island	25
Foot of St. Mary's Island to Sarnia	33
Sarnia to foot of St. Joseph's Island	270
Foot of St. Joseph's Island to Saulte Ste. Marie	47
Sault Ste. Marie Canal	1
Head of Sault Ste. Marie to Point aux Pins	7
Point aux Pins to Port Arthur	266

The depth of water in these canals ranges from 9 to 14 feet, and the Government intends to make the entire route navigable for vessels drawing from 12 to 14 feet of water. The locks range from 200 to 270 feet in length, by 45 feet in width.

While dealing with this series of canals, a few words may be added to assist the reader to form some conception of the magnitude and grandeur of the noble river St. Lawrence. Near its mouth, measuring it at the west point of the Island of Anticosti, it is between 70 and 80 miles across, as wide as the English Channel between Beachy Head and the French coast, and this width is maintained for a distance of 120 miles to Point de Monts, where it is suddenly reduced to about 27 miles, but is still wider than the Channel between Dover and Calais. From Point de Monts to the Island of Orleans, just below Quebec —a further distance of about 230 miles—it gradually decreases to a width of about 10 miles, and above Quebec it is still a very fine river to Kingston, on Lake Ontario, a total distance from Anticosti Island of 723 miles. The river is navigable for ocean-going steamers as far as Montreal, and is tidal to Three Rivers. Its waters are remarkably clear, and the shore scenery is very beautiful. Some of its affluents are 1,000 miles in length, and would be regarded as great rivers in Europe.

The other canal systems are, the Rideau Canals, completing a navigable route from Montreal to Ottawa and Kingston, a total length of 246¼ miles; the St. Lawrence and New York Canals, by the Richelieu River and the Chambly Canal (connected by Lake Champlain with the United States Erie Canal and the Hudson River), a total distance of 411 miles; the Trent River navigation, between Lake Huron and the Bay of Quinte (separating Prince Edward Island (Ontario) from the mainland) on Lake Ontario, 235 miles, of which only part has at present been made navigable for vessels of light draught; and St. Peter's Canal, cut through an

isthmus half a mile wide between St. Peter's Bay on the Atlantic, and the Bras-d'Or Lake, Nova Scotia.

The tolls derived from these canals during the year ending June 30th, 1885, was $311,579, and other receipts for hydraulic rents, wharfage, &c., brought the total revenue to $341,460.

It should also be stated, with respect to the river system of Manitoba and the North-West, that a steamer can proceed from Winnipeg, *viâ* the Saskatchewan, to Edmonton, near the base of the Rocky Mountains, a distance of 1,500 miles; and steamers are now plying for a distance of more than 320 miles on the Assiniboine, an affluent of the Red River, which it joins at the city of Winnipeg. The Red River is navigable for steamers from Moorhead, in the United States, where it is crossed by the Northern Pacific Railway, to Lake Winnipeg, a distance of more than 400 miles.

Shipping.

The total number of vessels on the register books of the Dominion on the 31st of December, 1885, including old and new sailing vessels, steamers, and barges, was 7,315, with a registered tonnage of 1,231,856 tons. The number of steamers was 1,131, with a gross tonnage of 212,570 tons. Assuming the average value to be $30 per ton, the value of the registered tonnage of Canada at that date would be $36,955,680. The following table shows the number of vessels, &c., on the registry books of the several provinces:—

Provinces.	Vessels of all kinds.		Steamers.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
New Brunswick	1,060	288,589	76	10,383
Nova Scotia	2,986	541,832	76	9,291
Quebec	1,631	203,635	328	89,845
Ontario	1,223	144,487	526	81,063
Prince Edward Island	229	36,040	12	3,055
British Columbia	123	11,834	74	13,872
Manitoba	63	5,439	39	5,061
Total	7,315	1,231,856	1,131	212,570

In 1885 the number of new vessels built and registered in the Dominion was 240, with a tonnage of 43,179 tons.

Postal Service.

There is an excellent postal service in every part of Canada. The Postmaster-General is a Minister of the Crown The city service is one cent per half ounce, and the general internal service three cents for the same weight. The department also issues money orders, and controls the Post Office Savings Banks. Post-offices are established in every village and settlement of importance.

CHAPTER XIV.

FISHERIES AND MARINE.

THE fisheries of Canada are probably unrivalled, certainly unsurpassed, for their extent and productiveness; and they are of paramount value, not only in producing food for home consumption and for exportation, but also in providing profitable occupation for many thousands of fishermen and other persons, and in thus rearing a race of hardy seamen on whom reliance may well be placed as the maritime strength of the Dominion. It is estimated that no fewer than 60,000 men are engaged in this important enterprise, and their number, large as it is, is not surprising when we consider the vast extent of the rivers, lakes, and inland seas with which Canada is girt and intersected, the gulf and river of St. Lawrence alone providing more than 900 miles of coast. These waters literally teem with fish of all kinds, and it is satisfactory to find that their condition is under the watchful supervision of a special governmental department, great care being taken in the management and preservation of this most important branch of industry, whose proportions increase year by year, with apparently unlimited resources.

The fisheries are naturally divided into two classes, the sea-fisheries and the fresh-water fisheries; the former including the cod, the herring, the mackerel, the lobster, and the seal, to which may be added the whale fishery of the northern seas; and the latter, the salmon, the trout, the white fish, &c.

Sea Fisheries.

First in importance under this heading must be placed the cod fishery carried on with great success on the coasts of Labrador, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, up which river the cod was formerly found in abundance as high as the Point de Monts. The fishing is carried on at various periods according to the locality, chiefly in the months of June, July, and August, in vessels of from 60 to 100 tons burthen, or in open boats, the former being employed by the fishermen of Nova Scotia, whilst the latter are used in the province of Quebec, sometimes near the coast, and sometimes on the banks twenty or thirty miles from shore. The Hon. P. Fortin, who has for some years been in command of the armed schooner *La Canadienne*, maintained for the protection of the Canadian fisheries at a cost of about $20,000 a year, states, with respect to the in-shore fishing carried on with hand lines, that each of the two men manning a boat uses two lines, and when the fish are plentiful they have not a moment's rest; it is not uncommon to see a boat come ashore after a day's fishing with 2,000 pounds of fish, 1,000 for each man. The bank fishing is pursued with long lines called "Norman lines," from 600 to 1,200 fathoms long, and with hooks attached at intervals by means of smaller and shorter lines. These lines are allowed to remain in the water from six to eight hours, and Mr. L. Z. Joncas, who read a most interesting paper on the Canadian fisheries during the International Fisheries Exhibition of 1883—from which paper much of the information contained in this chapter is taken—says that in certain seasons of the year, especially in September, two fishermen with a line of 800 fathoms will in a few hours take five or six thousand pounds weight of fish. The

operations of dressing and curing cod fish for export involve great care, and the agency of the sun and air are found to be most serviceable for the drying process, although some attempts have been made to effect this by artificial means. When cured, the fish are exported to Spain, Portugal, Italy, Brazil, the West Indies, &c.

The herring is found from April to December in immense shoals off the Atlantic coast of Nova Scotia, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Chaleur Bay, &c., and in winter along the southern coast of New Brunswick. "It is impossible without seeing," writes Dr. Fortin, "to form a correct idea of the prodigious abundance of the ova of the herring deposited on all the coast where the herring spawns. I have seen, in many instances, the shore covered two or three feet deep with them for several miles. The most expeditious mode of taking the herring is by means of seines, each from 100 to 150 fathoms long by 8 to 11 fathoms wide, but these require many hands and several boats to work them. Sometimes days are passed without seeing a single fish, but at others a shoal is more readily found, and fishermen sometimes take at a single haul of the seine enough fish to fill 500, 1,000, 2,000, or even 3,000 barrels." Mr. Joncas tells us that we need not be surprised at such results when we reflect that "herrings in a shoal are so crowded together as to almost form a compact mass from the surface of the water to the bottom." Salted herrings are sent to the United States and to the West Indies, but not many to England.

The mackerel fishery of the Gulf of St. Lawrence has been much neglected by the Canadians of Quebec, and was formerly left almost entirely to their American neighbours; but the fishermen of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island have now a fine fleet of schooners engaged in this fishery, making a great show on the southern portion of the Gulf during July, August, and September. The mackerel is taken both with the seine and with hook and line, and from 30 to 50 barrels may be taken sometimes in six hours by a crew of fifteen men. Salted mackerel are sent to England, the United States, and the West Indies.

Ten years ago the lobster fishery was only carried on in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, which have 400 or 500 factories for the preparation and canning of lobsters; but now Prince Edward Island also engages largely in this industry, and had three years ago no fewer than 118 such factories.

Herds of seal arrive in the Gulf of St. Lawrence in the month of November, and are taken with strong nets sunk to the bottom. The meshes of these nets are eight inches square, and when the seals, frightened by the fishermen, try to escape by diving, they run their heads into these meshes and are captured. On the coast of Labrador the seal fishery is somewhat later, and is very arduous because of the severity of the cold at that season. When taken out of the water the seals immediately become frozen, and they are kept in that state till the spring, when they are cut up and their fat melted.

It should also be stated that oysters are plentiful in the waters of British Columbia, on the shores of Prince Edward Island, where they are remarkably fine, and in other parts.

Freshwater Fisheries.

At one time the danger which everywhere besets improvident and wasteful fishing greatly reduced the stocks in the Canadian lakes and rivers, and especially of the salmon; but of late years the adoption of stringent regulations, limiting the fishing seasons, controlling the fishing implements, and promoting fish culture, have produced a marked improvement. A large number of officers are appointed to enforce the law throughout the fishing-grounds, and the annual departmental reports show the vigilance with which persons are detected and punished for fishing during the close seasons, for polluting the rivers, for illegal modes of fishing, and other detrimental acts; whilst a system of fishing bounties encourages honest and successful fishing. Millions of young salmon are distributed yearly in the rivers, with highly satisfactory results, and, besides being a source of wealth to the Dominion, salmon fishing now attracts a large number of fly-fishers from England, the United States, &c. Most of the Canadian salmon are caught along the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, near the estuaries of rivers, and in the rivers of British Columbia; and it will be seen by the statistics given below that the annual catch exceeds a million of dollars in value. Great quantities are salted, smoked, and canned for exportation.

The white fish and trout fisheries are chiefly carried on in the four great lakes of the province of Ontario, together covering an area of 83,000 square miles. But the Canadian rivers also abound with fish, including sea trout, which are taken in large numbers at the mouths of rivers emptying themselves into the Atlantic; salmon trout, which reach a weight of 80 pounds; white fish, said to equal the salmon in flavour; sturgeon, bass, pike, &c.

The lakes are fished by means of sailing boats or steam tugs, with gill nets and trap nets; and this industry admits, in the province of Ontario, of great expansion, the capital at present invested therein being inconsiderable.

In the winter months, also, the smelt fishery gives employment to hundreds of men in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.

Produce of the Fisheries.

The total value of the fisheries of Canada for the year 1884, as shown by the official report, was as follows:—

	$
Nova Scotia	8,763,779
New Brunswick	3,730,454
Quebec	1,694,561
British Columbia	1,358,267
Ontario	1,133,724
Prince Edward Island	1,085,619
Total	17,766,404

The following table shows the proportions in which different kinds of fish contributed to this great total, equivalent to more than three millions and a half sterling:—

	$		$
Cod	4,302,454	Whitefish	271,971
Herring	2,645,447	Hake	217,981
Lobsters	2,351,559	Alewives	189,854
Mackerel	1,826,681	Seal skins	166,788
Salmon	1,357,727	Oysters	126,458
Haddock	758,245	Pickerel	111,452
Fish oils	477,443	Halibut	98,532
Trout	464,653	Sturgeon	88,899
Sardines	384,600	Eels	84,714
Smelt	370,644	Bass	75,573
Pollock	275,222	Shad	74,058

These returns manifest a marked improvement over former years in almost all kinds of fish, and particularly in cod, mackerel, herring, salmon, and lobsters. The total value shows an increase of $808,211 above the total for 1883, and it should be added that it does not include the fish consumed by the Indian population of British Columbia, or the yield of Manitoba and the North-West Territories, from which trustworthy returns had not been received.

The Canadian Government, in order to develop the vast maritime resources of the Dominion, has spent about $5,000,000 in harbour improvement, and in the establishment of telegraphic communication over about 27,000 miles of the most prolific fishing grounds, a result which is largely due to the energetic efforts of Dr. Fortin.

Fish Breeding.

Much attention is paid to pisciculture and, in 1884, the young fish bred at the various hatcheries numbered upward of fifty millions, viz. white fish, 30,500,000; pickerel, 10,000,000; salmon, 7,390,000; trout, 5,300,000.

Marine.

Amongst other important works entrusted to the Department of Marine and Fisheries is the maintenance of the lighthouse service, which is necessarily very extensive. This service is in six divisions, viz., the Ontario division, including the lights above Montreal; the Quebec division, extending below Montreal and including the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence; the Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and British Columbia divisions. The total number of light-stations in the Dominion at the end of 1885 was 526, and of lights shown, 617 the number of steam fog-whistles and automatic fog-horns, 35; and the number of light-keepers, engineers of fog-whistles and other assistants, with the crews of light-ships, was 673.

This department also provides for the treatment and relief of sick and distressed mariners, the improvement of harbours and steamboat inspection, the register and survey of shipping, the maintenance of marine and immigrant hospitals, the meteorological survey, signal service, &c.

CHAPTER XV.

AGRICULTURE IN MANITOBA.

THE agricultural resources of a country are naturally those which are most material to its colonization and development, and the source of its future strength; and in these Canada is remarkably rich. Mere figures fail to convey an idea of its vastness, for, roughly speaking, it extends generally over twenty degrees of latitude, whilst the distance across the continent from east to west is considerably greater than that from Liverpool to the Straits of Belle Isle, between Labrador and Newfoundland; so that when the traveller has crossed the Atlantic, he is not yet half-way to the Canadian provinces on the shores of the Pacific. The eastern and older portions of the Dominion extend south to a latitude which corresponds with that of Rome; on the west the southern boundary is nearly that of the latitude of Paris; whilst the northern boundaries of our North American territories are to be sought amid the wastes of the Arctic Circle. In the words of Mr. S. E. Dawson, the author of a handbook prepared for the meeting of the British Association at Montreal in 1884, "to characterize in a few lines a country covering more than half the continent of North America, and reaching from the latitude of Constantinople to the North Pole—a country whose circuitous coast-line on the Atlantic measures 10,000 miles, and whose western shore upon the Pacific, studded with islands and indented by secure harbours and deep inlets, attains almost an equal length—a country where maize and peaches are staple crops, and where vegetation fades out upon the desolate and melancholy shores of the Arctic Ocean—to characterize such a country by a few general phrases is evidently impossible. If we look at the eastern portion alone, we see the greatest forest region in the world; if we consider the central portion, we are regarding the great prairie country; but if we cross the passes into the Pacific province, we enter upon that 'sea of mountains' compared with which the most mountainous country in Europe is of limited extent. And yet there are aspects in which, when British Columbia is excepted, this great country may be apprehended by a wide generalization. It is a country of broad lakes and flowing waters, a country where the abundance of streams and the regularity of summer rains preclude the possibility of drought. It is a land of grass and forest, a country containing by far the largest portion of fresh water upon the globe, where, 2,000 miles from the ocean, the traveller may lose sight of land and be prostrated by sea-sickness; a land containing the most extensive water-ways in the world; where thousands of miles of navigable rivers may conduct commerce into the remotest corner of the continent at its widest part."

Speaking generally, the eastern and better known portions of the Dominion, including the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario, consist chiefly of forest lands, but large areas have been cleared, and are now profitable and flourishing agricultural districts, exporting large quantities of produce of all kinds; British Columbia, in the extreme west, is mountainous; and between these lie immense tracts of land, including millions of acres in every way fitted for settlement and for farming operations, by reason of the healthiness of the climate, the fertility

of the soil, the unusual facilities for water as well as land carriage, the productiveness of the fisheries, the mineral resources. and other valuable attributes.

The Prairie Lands of Western Canada.

Viewing the Dominion in its agricultural aspects, we cannot do better than follow the lines adopted in a most valuable essay,* contributed to the 'Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society of England,' by Professor Fream, of the Downton College of Agriculture, who may be accepted as an undoubted authority on the subjects of which he treats. Dealing first with the vast plains, with their woodland borders, which constitute the prairie region of Manitoba and the North-West Territories, he states that they extend over three series of table-lands, or steppes, terraced. one above the other, and rising from east to west. As has been already intimated, the Southern boundary of Canadian territory is here the 49th parallel of north latitude, and along this line the prairie extends from the 96th to the 112th meridian of west longitude, a distance of about 900 miles. Northwards it gradually narrows until, on the coasts of the Arctic Ocean, its width does not exceed 400 miles; beyond the northern branch of the Saskatchewan dense evergreen forests deprive it of its most characteristic feature; its eastern boundary consists of the rocky plateau on the shores of Lake Winnipeg, whence it extends west and north-west to Lake Athabasca; on the west it is bounded by the Rocky Mountains, a magnificent range, or rather series of ranges, extending over a width of some hundreds of miles, with their lofty peaks crowned with eternal snow, whilst the lower slopes are clad in the dark green foliage of the pine. The following testimony to their impressiveness and grandeur is borne by Professor Ramsay, of Glasgow University:—"There are few grander sights than the circle of the Alps as seen from Milan Cathedral; scarcely less fine is the vast wall of the Pyrenees as sighted from Toulouse; but neither the one nor the other presents so magnificent a spectacle as that steep, straight line of snowy peaks rising in one endless chain out of the flat to put bounds at length to the seemingly boundless prairie."

Proceeding from east to west, the broad prairie lands have a slight rise of about five feet per mile, except at two points where they are intersected from the south-east to the north-west by escarpments marking the commencement of the second and third steppes. The lowest portion of the prairie land occupies the valley of the Red River (the surface of which is composed of fine silt, with a coating of black vegetable soil admirably suited for farming operations) and the lands on the west bank of Lake Winnipeg, with an average breadth of upwards of 100 miles, an area of 56,000 square miles, one-fourth of which is water, and an elevation of about 800 feet above the sea-level. The second steppe, known as the Great Plains, which commences about 80 miles west of Winnipeg, ranges from 200 to 230 miles in width, with an average altitude of about 1,600

* This essay has been reprinted in two parts, relating respectively to 'The Prairie,' and 'The Eastern Provinces,' each about 90 pp., and should be read by all who are interested in the progress of our great North American dependency. Those who desire still further information will find it in a comprehensive work, 'Manitoba and the Great North-West,' by Professor John Macoun, Dominion Field Naturalist and Botanist.

feet above the sea-level, and is bounded on the west by the Grand Côteau (Anglicé, hill-slope) of the Missouri, 30 or 40 miles wide, which stretches diagonally across the continent from south-east to north-west for a distance of 800 miles. This second steppe extends westward to a distance of nearly 400 miles from Winnipeg, and includes the great plain of Regina and the celebrated Bell Farm at Indian Head. Its surface, less even than that of the valley of the Red River, which is perfectly flat, is composed of thick deposits of drift, and is somewhat diversified with wooded hills. The third steppe, reaching from the Côteau to the base of the Rocky Mountains, about 840 miles from Winnipeg, has an undulating surface, more even and diversified than that of the other steppes, and the eastern portion consists in places of true till or boulder clay. On the 49th parallel it has a width of 450 miles, but it narrows rapidly to the northwards. Underlying nearly the whole of the prairie region are clay, sandstone, and limestone formations, and there is evidence of extensive glacial action throughout this immense tract of territory. On the third steppe there are abundant traces of vast buffalo herds in the boulders, formerly used by these animals as rubbing-stones for their horns, the surrounding depressions, or "wallows," worn by their feet, and long trails intersecting the prairie in various directions.

In 1882, probably unnoticed by few beyond the comparatively small class of farmers who have devoted their attention to agricultural chemistry, between forty and fifty samples of soil, taken at various points between Lake Winnipeg and the Rocky Mountains, were shown at the Reading Meeting of the Royal Agricultural Society, in glass tubes four feet in length, each containing a core of the soil and subsoil. Three samples of the surface soils were subjected to analysis by Sir J. B. Lawes and Dr. J. H. Gilbert, in order to ascertain the amount of nitrogen they contained, with the following results:—No. 1, from Portage la Prairie, 56 miles west of Winnipeg, had probably been under cultivation for several years, and its dry mould was found to contain 0·2471 per cent. of nitrogen; No. 2, from the Saskatchewan district, about 140 miles from Winnipeg, had probably been under cultivation for a shorter time, and contained 0·3027 per cent.; No. 3, from a spot about 40 miles from Fort Ellice, on the western boundary of Manitoba, a virgin soil, contained 0·25 per cent. "In general terms," says Professor Fream, "these soils are about twice as rich in nitrogen as the average of the Rothamsted arable surface soils; and, so far as can be judged, are probably about twice as rich as the average of arable soils in Great Britain. They correspond in their amount of nitrogen very closely with the surface soils of our permanent pasture land. At the recent meeting of the British Association at Montreal, Sir J. B. Lawes and Dr. Gilbert presented to the Chemical Section a paper 'On some points in the Composition of Soils, with results illustrating the Sources of the Fertility of Manitoba Prairie Soils,' and we are indebted to Dr. Gilbert for his kindness in revising a Canadian newspaper report, from which we proceed to make a few extracts. Besides the three soils already referred to, four other Manitoba soils were examined in greater detail. They came respectively from Niverville, 44 miles west of Winnipeg; from Brandon, 133 miles west of Winnipeg; from Selkirk, 22 miles north-east of Winnipeg; and from Winnipeg itself. These soils showed a very high percentage of nitrogen; that from Niverville nearly twice as high a percentage as in the

first 6 or 9 inches of ordinary arable land, and about as high as the surface soil of pasture land in Great Britain. That from Brandon was less rich; still the first 12 inches of depth is as rich as the first 6 or 9 inches of good old arable lands. The soil from Selkirk showed an extremely high percentage of nitrogen in the first 12 inches, and in the second 12 inches as high a percentage as in ordinary pasture surface soil. Lastly, both the first and second 12 inches of the Winnipeg soil were shown to be very rich in nitrogen, richer than the average of old pasture surface soil. The authors further state that official records show that the rich prairie soils of the North-West are competent to yield large crops, but under present conditions they do not give yields commensurate with their richness, compared with the soils of Great Britain, which have been under arable cultivation for centuries. That the rich prairie soils do not yield more produce is due partly to climate, but largely to scarcity of labour and consequent imperfect cultivation, thus leading to too luxuriant a growth of weeds; and until mixed agriculture and stock-feeding can be had recourse to, and local demand arises, the burning of the straw, and deficiency and waste of manure, are more or less inevitable but still exhausting practices. So long as land is cheap and labour dear, some sacrifice of fertility is unavoidable in the process of bringing these virgin soils under profitable cultivation, and the only remedy is to be found in increase of population. Still, the fact should not be lost sight of that such practices of pioneer settlement do involve serious waste of fertility. It may not be out of place to append the opinion of the Rothamsted investigators, that a fertile soil is one which has accumulated within it the residue of ages of previous vegetation, and that it becomes infertile as this residue is exhausted."

The prairie is for the most part an unbroken expanse of herbage, without trees, and the settlers thereon are consequently freed from the preliminary trouble and expense involved in clearing the ground of timber and uprooting the stumps, so far as this process is necessary to its conversion into arable land. The course of the rivers and their tributary streams are generally marked by a line of low trees, and low shrubs are found in swampy localities; but otherwise the plains are covered with herbage only, the nutritive qualities of which have sufficed to nourish many generations of the buffalo, now fast disappearing before the advancing tide of civilisation, and will hereafter provide food for the fast improving herds and flocks introduced by the colonists, frequently selected from the choicest English herds with great care and at great expense. The herbage, however, differs greatly from that which grows on unbroken land in the mother country; for of the true grasses there are but few species corresponding with those common to English pastures. Professor Fream was informed by Professor Macoun, whose important work, 'Manitoba and the Great North-West,' has already been referred to, that "there is not a single true clover, not one species of the genus *Trifolium*, indigenous to the prairie soil. Nevertheless, the leguminous family, as a whole, is by no means unrepresented on the prairie; and as a matter of fact, while in Ontario only twenty-six species of *Leguminosæ* have been recorded, no less than forty-two species have been found in the North-West, the most noteworthy of these being, perhaps, the so-called purple prairie clover, *Petalostemon violaceum;* the white prairie clover, *P. candidus;* the purple prairie vetch, *Vicia Americana;* the prairie pea or purple pea-vine, *Lathyrus venosus;* and various milk-vetches belonging to the genera

Astragalus and *Oxytropis*. Though the leguminous herbage of the prairie presents no species identical with those of Britain, the species of *Gramineæ*, on the other hand, coincide in a few cases with native British grasses; but this is the exception rather than the rule. Species of grasses common to both the prairie herbage and the British flora are *Agrostis vulgaris*, *Kœleria cristata*, *Poa pratensis*, *P. annua*, *Triticum repens*, *T. caninum*, and *Hierochloe borealis*. I was surprised at the quantity of couch grass, *Triticum repens*, known in Canada as quick or quack grass, which came under my notice; but Professor Macoun told me that the variety which grows on the prairie is non-stoloniferous, and therefore does not form the bed or couch of interlacing underground stems which are found so objectionable by the English farmer; it is readily eaten by stock, and constitutes a most valuable grass on all clay and alkaline soils of the prairie."

The true American buffalo grass (*Buchloe dactyloides*), common in the States of Kansas and Colorado, is unknown in Canada. The Canadian buffalo grasses are *Bouleloua oligostachya*, abundant on the dry and sandy plains of the south, and *Stipa spartea* ("wild oat" buffalo grass), which is found everywhere, and forms the bulk of the winter pasture. The latter is allied to the ornamental feather grass (*Stipa pinnata*) of English gardens. In swampy regions certain sedges are largely intermixed with the herbage, but only one of these (*Carex disticha*) is British. Near woods, wild vetches and peas, and various rosaceous and composite plants, enter into the composition of the prairie hay, and the "holy grass" of Scotland and Northern Europe (so-called from having been formerly used to strew the floors of churches at certain seasons) is very general. Farm horses find their chief summer food in the *Carex aristata* of the salt marshes, and graze on *Stipa spartea* in the winter.

Professor Macoun gives the following analysis of a few of the native western grasses, taken from the 1879 Report of the United States Commissioner of Agriculture:—

Grasses.	Flesh-producing principles.	Fatty matters.	Heat-producing principles.	Woody fibre and ash.
Phleum pratensis (Timothy) . .	11·36	3·55	53·35	31·74
Andropogon scoparius . . .	16·21	1·59	33·72	50·48
Poa pratensis (June grass) . .	11·54	2·86	40·69	44·91
Poa seratina (Foul Meadow) . .	8·91	3·48	42·44	47·17
Panicum virgatum (Fall Panic grass) .	5·01	1·70	47·80	45·49
Hierochloe borealis (Sweet Scented grass)	14·31	4·12	41·43	40·14
Festuca ovina (Fescue grass) . .	12·10	3·34	40·43	44·13

In considering the climate of Manitoba and the North-West Territory, it is essential to avoid forming inaccurate conclusions from the extreme lowness of the winter temperature. When it is stated that the thermometer falls to 30° and 40°, and even 50° below zero, a shudder naturally pervades the frame of the English reader, to whom such a reading is unknown. But it should be borne in mind that the sensation of cold is not dependent on temperature alone, but also largely on humidity; and as the winter atmosphere of the prairie is very bright and dry, the effects of the tempera-

ture on the human frame are greatly moderated. In the autumn of 1884 Professor Glaisher, when travelling across the prairie, made a series of observations with the dry and wet bulb thermometer, and found throughout the journey a difference between the readings ranging from 10° to 19°. And it is to this quality of dryness that the Manitoba wheat owes that peculiar hardness which makes it particularly suited for milling operations.

As to the life-sustaining capability of the prairie in winter, Professor Fream quotes the following passage from 'The North-West Passage by Land,' by Viscount Milton and Dr. Cheadle, who wintered in 1862–3 at La Belle Prairie, on the North Saskatchewan river:—"We now prepared to leave our winter quarters, as soon as the snow had disappeared sufficiently to admit of travelling with carts. The first thing to do was to find the horses, which had been turned loose at the commencement of the winter. We had seen them or their tracks from time to time, and knew in what direction they had wandered. La Ronde followed their trail without difficulty, and discovered them about eight or ten miles away. We were very much astonished at their fine condition when he drove them back to La Belle Prairie. Although very thin when the snow began to fall, and two of them had been used for sleigh work in the early part of the winter, they were now perfect balls of fat, and as wild and full of spirit as if fed on corn—a most unusual condition for Indian horses. The pasture is so nutritious that animals fatten rapidly even in winter—when they have to scratch away the snow to feed—if they find woods to shelter them from the piercing winds. No horses are more hardy or enduring than those of this country, yet their only food is the grass of the prairies and the vetches of the copses. The milch cows and draught oxen at Red River, and in Minnesota, feeding on grass alone, were generally in nearly as fine condition as the stall-fed cattle of the Baker Street show."

The normal seasons of the region bounded north and south by lat. 49° and 60°, on the east by 95° long., and on the west by the Rocky Mountains—an area of 668,000 square miles—comprise, says Professor Fream, "a long, severe, but dry winter, a hot summer with abundant rain, a short pleasant autumn or 'fall,' and a still briefer spring, which is usually dry and sunny. The opening of spring, as marked by the first appearance of spring flowers, is about the middle of April, the period being practically the same over the entire area. The diurnal temperature rapidly rises, and summer heat prevails till the middle of August, about which time a great and permanent fall in temperature takes place, and autumn sets in; the closing days of this latter season are often very beautiful, and they form the period known as the Indian summer. Winter begins within the first fortnight of November, the navigation of the Red River being closed simultaneously, though the Peace River, much farther north, usually closes later."

Perhaps the best general idea of the climate may be gathered from the following mean results of eleven years' observations at Winnipeg (1871 to 1881 inclusive):—

Mean height of barometer, 29·15 inches; mean temperature, 33·06°; maximum temperature, 95·34°; minimum temperature,—40·51°; rainfall, 16·97 inches; snowfall, 52·72 inches;* total rain and melted snow, 23·3

* Mr. R. H. Scott states ('Meteorology,' 3rd edition) that, "on a very rough estimate, a foot of snow yields about an inch of rain."

inches; days on which rain fell, 69; days on which snow fell, 45; fogs, 9; thunderstorms, 27; navigation opened on Red River, April 20; navigation closed on Red River, November 13. Mr. James Stewart, of St. Andrew's, Manitoba, in presenting to the Department of Agriculture the statistics from which these results are deduced, remarks:—"The climate of this country, I believe, is the finest in the world. On account of the bracing dry atmosphere, the fluctuations of the temperature are not inconveniently felt, as is the case in places where the atmosphere is more humid. The warm days in summer are generally followed by cool evenings, and such a thing as very sultry and oppressive heat is scarcely known. The warm days, followed by cool nights and copious dews, facilitate the growth of cereals in a wonderful degree. The winters here are also very pleasant and bracing, proceeding from the same cause, namely, the dryness of our atmosphere. . . . As a rule the rains are chiefly in the months of May and June, the time they are most wanted for vegetation, while the fall months are generally dry, so that rarely any difficulty is experienced in harvesting the crops. The months of September, October, and November are looked upon as the finest season of the year, being remarkable for cool dry weather, unknown, I believe, in any other country."

In connection with this subject it is important to observe that, if the reader will refer to a physical atlas, he will find that between the meridians of 100° and 120° the isothermal lines rise very considerably to the north, showing that the North-West Territory has a much higher mean temperature than many other countries situated in the same latitude.

Manitoba and its Capital.

The province of Manitoba, formerly known as the Red River Settlement, though more extensive than the British Isles, its area being 123,200 square miles, is, as will be seen by the map, only one of many yet to be developed. It is situated in the very centre of the North American continent, and its growth, together with that of its capital, Winnipeg—which stands on the site of Fort Garry, the scene of the Red River rebellion of 1869–70—has been extremely rapid, especially since the establishment of railway communication, first (in 1879) *viâ* Chicago, through United States territory, and subsequently (in the winter of 1883) by the completion of the line from Port Arthur, at the head of Lake Superior, by which it was brought into immediate connection with the great canal system, already described. The advantages accruing from this connecting link may be imagined from the fact that when Colonel Wolseley (now Lord Wolseley) set out in 1870 to suppress Riel's rebellion, his troops were three months (May to August) on the march; the same journey, from Port Arthur to Winnipeg, may now be accomplished in less than twenty-four hours. The consequence is that whereas, in 1871, the population of Manitoba was under 19,000, and of Winnipeg only 241, at the census of 1881 these numbers had increased to 65,954 and 7,985, and last year the population of the province had grown to 125,000, of which Winnipeg claimed 30,000. The assessment of the city in 1878 was £670,000, whereas in 1884 it had risen to £7,600,000. No more remarkable instance can be found of the effects of railway communication in converting an obscure and inaccessible settlement into a large and flourishing and populous city, opening up to the reflective mind

visions of many such creations in the future, in what are now the solitudes of the prairie, awaiting the advent of the pioneers of colonization and civilization. In an address upon Manitoba delivered by the Earl of Dufferin, during his term of office as Governor-General of Canada, his Lordship eloquently said :—" It was here that Canada, emerging from her woods and forests, first gazed upon her rolling prairies and unexplored North-West, and learnt, as by an unexpected revelation, that her historical territories of the Canadas, her eastern seaboards of New Brunswick, Labrador, and Nova Scotia, her Laurentian lakes and valleys, corn lands and pastures, though themselves more extensive than half-a-dozen European kingdoms, were but the vestibules and antechambers to that till then undreamt-of Dominion, whose illimitable dimensions alike confound the arithmetic of the surveyor and the verification of the explorer. It was here that, counting her past achievements as but the preface and prelude to her future exertions and expanding destinies, she took a fresh departure, received the afflatus of a more imperial inspiration, and felt herself no longer a mere settler along the banks of a single river, but the owner of half a continent, and in the magnitude of her possessions, in the wealth of her resources, in the sinews of her material might, the peer of any power on the earth."

The provincial authorities of Manitoba are keenly alive to the importance of fostering and developing the cultivation of the soil, and have a Council of Agriculture, which, amongst other functions, regulates the close time for animals and birds, which are stringently protected at such seasons; appoints district veterinarians, who can at any time enter any common, field, stable, cowshed, or other premises where there are reasonable grounds for supposing that any infected animal is to be found, and also inspectors who report on the noxious weeds found infesting the land; and undertakes the collection of statistics relative to the acreage under cultivation, the prospects of the crops from month to month, the yields harvested, number and condition of live-stock, &c. This information is furnished by voluntary correspondents, one of whom is secured for each township, and in return they receive copies of all reports, with free admission to the annual provincial exhibition, and the privilege of sending exhibits thereto without payment of the usual entry fees. The names and addresses of such correspondents are made public, so that all can judge of their competency, and the schedules which they have to fill up are most comprehensive, covering every branch of farming operations. These correspondents are also asked to describe the weather, rainfall, temperature, &c., and its suitability for growth and harvest; to state generally the quality of the hay crop, and the condition in which it was "saved," with the total quantity saved, and the average weight per acre of prairie grass, and of cultivated grass and clovers respectively; to give the dates of the beginning and ending of harvest, with the average yield per acre in bushels, and comparative quality of wheat, barley, oats, flax, and peas; to state the extent to which they may have been injured, and the causes; to give the dates at which certain varieties of wheat (Red Fyfe, White Fyfe, White Russian, Golden Drop, and Lost Nation) ripened, and their average yield per acre; to state the condition of field potatoes and roots, with their probable quality and probable yield per acre; to state whether the supply of farm labourers had been quale or not to the demand: to report on native hops growing wild, as to whether

they were picked and sold, and with what success; to name the principal varieties of wild fruit, stating if they were plentiful or scarce, what fruits had been cultivated, and with what success; to state whether prairie chicken and wild duck were as plentiful as in the previous year, and if the law for their protection was generally observed; and also whether hares and rabbits were numerous, and what damage they had done. For the purpose of verification, independent returns as to the field crops are also obtained from the threshers. A monthly 'Crop Bulletin,' based on the returns received from the correspondents, is issued by the Manitoba Department, and cannot fail to be of the highest value to the farmer and to the Dominion. Each bulletin commences with a report on the weather and meteorological observations of the previous month, and this is followed by accounts of the progress and prospects of the several field crops, with notes on noxious weeds, and by reports on the various descriptions of live stock, with information on such subjects as wild bees, labour, prairie fires, and timber, and advice and warnings to farmers. Further, the bulletin is usually supplemented by a summary of agricultural prospects in the United States and the United Kingdom.

The protection of game receives careful and vigilant attention, and an account of the close times insisted on will also afford information as to the animals and birds found within the province. None of the following (says Professor Fream) are to be shot at, hunted, trapped, taken, or killed, within the times specified:—(*a*) all kinds of deer, including cabri or antelope, elk or wapiti, moose, reindeer or cariboo, or the fawns of such animals, between January 1 and October 1; (*b*) the varieties of grouse commonly known as prairie chicken, or pheasants, and partridges, between January 1 and September 1; (*c*) woodcock, plover, snipe, and sandpipers, between January 1 and August 1; (*d*) any kind of wild duck, sea-duck, widgeon, teal, wild swan or wild geese, except the variety of wild geese commonly known as snow geese or waveys, between May 1 and August 15; (*e*) otter, fisher or pekan, beaver, muskrat and sable, between May 15 and October 1; (*f*) mink and marten between April 15 and November 1. No person is allowed to hunt with dog, gun, net, or otherwise within the enclosed grounds or lands of another without first obtaining permission from the owner, agent, or occupant of such grounds or lands. In order to encourage persons who have imported, or may import, different kinds of game with the desire to breed the same on their own lands, no person is allowed to hunt, shoot, kill, or destroy any such game without the consent of the owner of the property wherever the same may be bred. Most of the wild birds are protected by law against capture, destruction, or injury, and, excepting the birds whose close times have already been enumerated, it is illegal to take, kill, or injure any birds save the following, which are unprotected: eagles, falcons, hawks, owls, wild pigeons, blackbirds, king-fishers, jays, crows, ravens, snow buntings or snow birds, shrikes, bitterns, curiews, cranes, grackles, cormorants, gulls, mergansers, pelicans, and loons. The penalty for infringing any of the bye-laws for the protection of game is a fine of from £2 to £10, and costs.

For statistical purposes the province of Manitoba is divided into three groups, eastern, western, and central. The eastern group comprises the counties of Manchester, Morris, Carillon, D'Iberville, Lorette, Selkirk, Lisgar, and Gimli; the central, the counties of Dufferin, Marquette, Portage

la Prairie, Rock Lake, Norfolk, Beautiful Plains, and Westbourne; the western, the counties of Russell, Shoal Lake, Minnedosa, Dennis, Brandon, Souris River, and Turtle Mountain. Where townships are not reported for, careful estimates are made, with due regard to the circumstance that these are generally the most recently settled ones.

The official report for the year 1884 shows that in the province of Manitoba 212,558 acres were ploughed in the fall of 1883, and 232,357 acres in the spring of 1884. Taking the various crops in the order in which they are presented in the report, we may state that cultivated grasses and clovers are not yet grown to a very large extent, but the acreage shows an increase of 50 per cent. over that of 1883; the total number of acres under these was 4,994, with a yield of 6,632 tons, the average throughout the province being 1·29 ton per acre. Of the total amount about 75 per cent. was Timothy grass, 12 per cent. clover, 5 per cent. Hungarian grass, and the rest orchard grass, alsike clover, white Dutch clover, lucerne, and millet. The average date on which "haying" began was the 20th of July. Of prairie hay, the eastern group had 49,022 tons saved, with an average yield of 1·45 ton per acre; the central group had 83,574 tons, with an average of 1·91 ton; and the western group 94,507 tons, with an average of 1·82 ton. The total amount saved in prairie hay and cultivated grasses was 233,735 tons, an increase of upwards of 10,000 tons over 1883.

With respect to wheat, past experiences taught the farmers that more attention should be paid to fall ploughing and early seeding, and the greater part of the 1884 crop was sown from seven to ten days earlier than in 1883. In 198 townships the average of frozen wheat sown was 50 per cent. of the whole; indeed, almost all the seed was more or less touched by frost, but at only one point did it fail to germinate, and reports received on the 1st of June stated that where frozen and unfrozen seed had been sown side by side, no perceptible difference was manifest; a few even gave the preference to the frosted seed. The yield and quality both fell below those of 1883—of which crop about 14 per cent. was held by farmers in June, 1884—the losses being principally from rain and hail, and also from shrinkage, the corn having in many places been cut too green. An area of 307,020 acres was sown with wheat in 1884, an increase of 47 per cent. over 1883, and the average dates of beginning and ending of seeding were the 24th of April and the 17th of May respectively, the western group being five days earlier than the central, which was equally in advance of the eastern. The average quantity of seed per acre was 1·8 bushel, and the variety known as Red Fyfe (similar to the Ghirka wheat grown in the Russian steppes, and shipped at the Black Sea ports, introduced into Canada by a family named Fyfe) was reported in 242 townships, Fyfe in 36, White Fyfe in 34, Golden Drop in 20, White Russian in 18, Lost Nation in 6, and Red Chaff in 2. The average dates on which cuttings began and ended were the 28th August and 22nd September, both dates being much later than usual. Stacking ended on the 30th September. The average yield for the province, as estimated by correspondents, was 21·84 bushels per acre, as compared with 23·69 bushels in 1883. The estimated averages in the three groups were: western, 23·22 bushels per acre; central, 22·90 bushels; eastern, 19·41 bushels. The following were the dates of ripening and average yield of the principal varieties:—Red Fyfe, August 28, 22·48 bushels per acre; White Fyfe, August 29, 24

bushels per acre; White Russian, September 3, 25·88 bushels per acre; Golden Drop, August 27, 23·18 bushels per acre; Lost Nation, September 4, 25·83 bushels per acre. The average for the province, as deduced from the threshers' returns, was 19·80 bushels per acre, about two bushels beneath the average furnished by the crop correspondents; and an estimate of the aggregate yield of wheat in bushels for the entire province, based on the threshers' returns, shows a total of 6,076,122 bushels, of which 1,335,255 bushels were in the eastern group, 2,346,387 in the central, and 2,394,480 in the western. About two-thirds of this quantity would probably be available for exportation, beyond the requirements of the population and the seed reserved for the next crop.

The Manitoba wheat standards, as defined by the Chief Grain Inspector of the province, are here appended, as the several grades are frequently alluded to in English newspapers. The Manitoba standards for grain are as follows: No. 1 hard spring wheat shall be Red Fyfe wheat, containing not more than 10 per cent. admixture of softer varieties; must be sound, well cleaned, and weigh not less than 60 lbs. to the measured imperial bushel. No. 2 hard spring wheat shall be Red Fyfe wheat, containing not more than 10 per cent. admixture of softer varieties; must be sound, reasonably clean, and weigh not less than 58 lbs. to the measured imperial bushel. No. 1 spring wheat must be sound, well cleaned, and weigh not less than 60 lbs. to the measured imperial bushel. No. 2 spring wheat must be sound, reasonably clean, and weigh not less than 58 lbs. to the measured imperial bushel. No. 3 spring wheat shall comprise all wheat fit for warehousing, not class enough for No. 2, and weighing not less than 56 lbs. to the measured imperial bushel. Rejected spring wheat shall comprise all wheat fit for warehousing, but too low in weight or otherwise unfit for No. 3. From this it will be seen that there are six grades of wheat fit for warehousing and milling purposes. All good wheat which is slightly damp is to be reported "no grade"; all wheat in a heating condition, or too damp to be safe for warehousing, or with any considerable admixture of foreign grain or seeds, or badly bin-burnt, is to be reported "condemned"; wheat with any admixture of "goose wheat" is to be "rejected"; and wheat containing smut or sprout, can in no case grade in its class as high as No. 1. Professor Fream (who hopes to raise some plants for closer examination) explains that "goose wheat" is a very leafy grass-like plant which produces abundance of highly translucent grains, having the appearance of very large, well-formed sharp-pointed grains of rye, with a well-defined groove or furrow; that it was cultivated, and is still grown in Edmonton, on the North Saskatchewan, where it is called "wild goose barley"; and that the original stock was obtained about twelve years ago from the crop of a wild goose.

Turning to the other crops of the province of Manitoba for 1884, we find that there were 40,848 acres under barley, 19,433 acres less than in 1883, the reasons assigned being the want of railway facilities in many parts, and the unsatisfactory state of the markets during the season of 1883–4. The average quantity of seed sown per acre was 2·26 bushels; seeding began on May 11th, and ended on June 5th; cutting began on August 26th, and ended on September 11th; and the average yield furnished by the threshers was 25·5 bushels per acre, 6·94 bushels less than the estimate of the crop correspondents before the results of the threshing were known. The total yield was 1,041,539 bushels.

Of oats there were 133,004 acres, 39,341 less than in 1883, owing to the unsatisfactory prices and the great distances many had to travel to market. Seeding began on the 2nd, and ended on the 26th of May; the average amount sown was 2·55 bushels per acre; harvest began on September 1st, and ended on September 26th; the average yield, according to the threshers, was 30·44 bushels per acre, and the total product 4,048,217 bushels,

Peas, 5,342 acres, yielded 95,417 bushels, an average of 18·62 bushels per acre; flax, 5,972 acres, yielded 86,863 bushels, an average of 14·56 bushels per acre; potatoes, 11,267 acres, yielded 2,167,820 bushels, an average of 192 bushels per acre; turnips, 2,728 acres, yielded 1,148,756 bushels; beet, 520 acres, 130,497 bushels; mangolds, 912 acres, 350,743 bushels; and carrots, 653 acres, 177,221 bushels. It is hoped that before long the Manitoba authorities will adopt the preferable plan of estimating the yield of the root crops by weight instead of by measure.

In 1883 inquiries were set on foot to ascertain the nature and varieties of the different noxious weeds found in the lands of Manitoba, and wild buckwheat (said to be identical with the black bindweed of English cornfields) seemed to be the most prevalent; lambs-quarter, which is similar to the English dock, Canada thistles, and wild mustard were reported from many localities; and cockle, wild oats, and wild sunflower also abounded. Attention was directed, not too soon, to the increase of these weeds, and the Legislative Assembly has enacted very stringent laws relating to their destruction, compelling the municipal councils to appoint overseers of highways and "pathmasters" to enforce their provisions, and these are supervised by inspectors appointed by the Department of Agriculture. If any owner or occupier of land allows any wild mustard, wild oats, or Canada thistles to grow thereon and the seed to ripen so as to permit of the distribution thereof, he becomes liable to a fine of from 10 dollars to 25 dollars for every offence. The pathmaster keeps watch over the lands within his district, and gives notice when he sees that weeds require cutting, and inattention to this within five days entails a fine upon the responsible person, followed by further penalties for every day of continued neglect. Station-masters are made similarly responsible for the extirpation of weeds growing on railways, and unoccupied lands and highways are attended to by the overseer or pathmaster, the owners in the former case being charged with the expense incurred. Seed-merchants are also brought within the purview of the law, for any person who vends for seed purposes, grain, grass, &c., containing the seed of certain specified weeds, is also liable to fine.

Rabbits (popularly called hares) are very numerous in some places, less plentiful in others, and scarce in some. Fortunately they confine themselves chiefly to the bluffs, and rarely venture into open ground, so that the damage they occasion is chiefly in gardens planted near to roads. Gophers and prairie dogs are very troublesome in the western parts of the province, and are more destructive to wheat than to other kinds of grain. Blackbirds have shown themselves in large numbers in several parts, and have become the source of serious annoyance, especially with respect to the oat crop. Colorado beetles are reported from few counties.

Horse-breeding is engaged in with increasing success, and the total number in the province in 1884 was 20,071, as compared with 14,181 in

1883, the majority being owned in the central group. The number of stallions was 178. Of the several breeds, French-Canadian horses were reported from 30 townships, Clydesdale from 25, coach horses from 2, half-breeds from 42, heavy draught from 6, Percheron from 16, thoroughbreds from 5, roadsters from 5, and general purposes from 43.

Farmers are also giving increased attention to cattle raising, the aggregate number in 1884 being 64,011. A large percentage consists of "grades," *i.e.* the native stock improved by crossing with English breeds, but there is also a fair number of pure-bred stock. Durhams were reported from 147 townships, Ayrshires from 14, and grades from 160.

Dairying is carried on as largely in Manitoba as the means of the farmers will admit of. All the butter that can be made is made, and the supply has been largely in excess of the consumption in the great majority of townships. Nearly all the farmers make cheese also, to meet their own household requirements, and as this part of the Dominion is very favourable for dairy farming, it is expected that cheese factories will be established with a view to a more extended manufacture.

The number of sheep in the province is not large, but correspondents, without exception, stated that they could see no reason why sheep-farming should not be made a most paying source of industry, there being all the conditions necessary to success—extensive pasturage of rich grass, rich dry soil and dry air, with a temperate summer climate, and a winter season entirely without rain or sleet storms, which are such a scourge to sheep in other places. The demand for good mutton and choice wool is always ahead of the supply, and is likely to increase. Assuming that the prairies in their wild state are capable of feeding three sheep per acre, a vast prospect is opened up for the near future. The one drawback spoken of by farmers—and this is not an insuperable one—is the trouble of keeping the sheep fenced in and confined to their farms, for wire fencing, the kind most generally in use, is very detrimental to the wool. In 1884 there were 6,431 sheep in the province, an increase of 2,220 on 1883, and of the different varieties, Leicesters are reported from 43 townships, Merinos from 2, Cotswolds from 21, and Southdowns from 12.

The principal varieties of pigs are Berkshire and Suffolk, with a few Yorkshire, Chester, and Poland China. Generally speaking, farmers keep only sufficient for their own use, but with the extension of railway facilities the raising of pork will doubtless increase, a pork-packing establishment having already been opened in Winnipeg. The number of hogs in the province in 1884 was 44,901, as compared with 27,991 in 1883.

Poultry is generally kept throughout the province, and with satisfactory success. Fowls are, of course, the most numerous, and turkeys, geese and ducks are also found in considerable numbers in many places. In winter they are generally kept in underground houses or in the ordinary cattle-sheds. Their enemies are mink, foxes, weasels and skunks, which are very destructive in the absence of proper protection.

In 1884 the total number of farmers in the province of Manitoba was 9,208, with an average occupation of 281 acres each. More than half the land (56 per cent.), was unoccupied or described as "non-resident"; the average cash value of improved land was 10·70 dollars per acre, and of unimproved land 5·68 dollars per acre, the price being highest in the eastern group and lowest in the last settled, or western group. The hold-

ings are larger in the western than in the eastern districts, and it is stated that there is a tendency on the part of farmers to cultivate more land than they can profitably attend to, a mistake against which they are cautioned by the authorities.

Among the varieties of fruit cultivated, the principal are currants, gooseberries, strawberries, apples, plums, raspberries and crab-apples. Currants, gooseberries, and strawberries are extensively and successfully grown; apples have not hitherto succeeded, owing, it is believed, to the selection of stocks from more southern latitudes, and much interest is attached to experiments now being made with apples imported from Russia. Wild grapes are very common, and it is thought that some of the hardier varieties, grafted on the native stock, will ripen in sheltered places. The wild varieties of fruit include strawberries, raspberries, cranberries, gooseberries, saskatoon berries (the fruit of certain rosaceous plants allied to the medlar, the apple, and the pear), blueberries, whortleberries, juneberries, currants, cherries, and plums.

Native hops grow wild throughout the province, and are picked for home use, being, as far as can be learned, the only variety used. In very few cases they have been sent to market, and they are pronounced to be of excellent quality; indeed, if they were not so good in their wild state, more attention would doubtless be paid to their cultivation as a marketable commodity. The principal drawbacks to such cultivation are the high winds which frequently prevail on the prairies, but successful growth is certain where shelter can be found or provided. Wild hops were reported from 172, and cultivated hops from 12 townships.

According to reports received in July, 1884, there was a fair demand for labourers in many parts of Manitoba, especially in the older counties. A few correspondents reported that labourers were required throughout the year; in other places they were wanted from the opening of spring work till the end of fall ploughing and threshing; and the greatest demand existed during haysel and harvest. In the more recently settled townships, where there are but a limited number of farmers, work is exchanged, and harvest is got through without the assistance of hired men. The wages paid to farm hands in 1884 varied from 18 dollars to 30 dollars per month, with board, the average being 23·50 dollars. The custom of paying so much per month, with board, almost entirely prevailed. Of female servants the want appeared to be as great as, and in many localities even greater, than that of farm labourers; for it is very difficult to obtain female servants for farmhouses, owing to their preference for the cities and towns. Their wages ranged from 8·50 dollars to 20 dollars per month, the average being 11 dollars.

The following testimony to the fertility of Manitoba is borne by the Rev. James MacGregor, D.D. (who accompanied the Marquis of Lorne in his journey across the Canadian continent in 1881) in an interesting article contributed to the 'Contemporary Review':—"As day after day, and week after week, we drove across those fertile regions, it was a daily wonder to us all how they had been so long kept hidden from the hungry millions of Europe. From Winnipeg to the Rocky Mountains we did not come across a thousand acres that were not fit either for grazing or for agriculture. Of the marvellous fertility of the first prairie steppe, the Red River region, there is no doubt whatever. The soil is a rich, black, friable mould, from

two to four feet in depth, and has in some places yielded crops of wheat for fifty years without manure.* The unbroken prairie has a sward of the richest green, thick and close in the pile as velvet. Here is the evidence of hard-headed, practical Scotch farmers who recently visited the country. Mr. Gordon, of Annandale, says that 'beneath that surface of dried grass and ashes, consequent upon the frequent fires, there lies hidden a treasure in fertility of soil which, when developed, will sustain millions of the human race.' 'Along the Red River,' says Mr. Snow of Mid-Lothian, 'the soil is a very strong black vegetable mould, and would carry paying crops of wheat for thirty years.' 'As a field for wheat raising,' says Mr. Biggar, of Kirkcudbright, 'I much prefer Manitoba to Dakota. The first cost of land is less, the soil is deeper and will stand more cropping, the sample of wheat is better, and the produce five to ten bushels per acre more, all of which is profit. On the whole, I was favourably impressed with Manitoba. No one who sees the immense extent of fertile soil and the excellence of its products, can for a moment doubt that there is a great future before that country.' A writer in 'Harper's New Monthly Magazine' for September, 1881, says:—'If one half of the ground of that comparatively small portion which is drained by the Red River and its affluents were sown to wheat, the product at an average yield would be 500,000,000 bushels, or more than the entire amount raised in the United States in 1880.'"

The Department of Agriculture has published a statement respecting the agriculture of Manitoba, based on the practical experience of 153 farmers, whose names and addresses are given, and to whom reference may at any time be made. These farmers testify generally to the healthiness of the climate and the richness and fertility of the soil, and the following averages, showing the yield per acre, have been deduced from their estimate of the crops of the four years 1877–80:—

Crops.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.
Wheat, 89 farmers	26⅜	26½	26⅔	29⅓
Barley, 101 farmers	40⅜	63	37⅔	41
Oats, 115 farmers	59⅜	59¾	58	57¾
Peas, 21 farmers	32	34	32¼	38½
Potatoes, 92 farmers	304	308	302	318

With respect to other farm products, we find farmers raising from 800 to 1,000 bushels of turnips, 300 bushels of carrots, 270 bushels of onions, and 60 bushels of beans, to the acre; and individual specimens are spoken of as having reached the following dimensions:—Turnips, from 25 lbs. to

* A pamphlet published by the Department of Agriculture of the Government of Canada ('What Farmers Say of their Personal Experience in the Canadian North-West,' 5th edition, 1883) records the testimony of ninety-six farmers as to the use of manure. Of these, forty-three have not used it; ten others state that the land has no need of it; six have only used it for gardens, vegetables, or root crops; and the remaining thirty-seven have employed it to a greater or less extent, some using all they can get. It is also stated in the pamphlet that, "there is one instance in the parish of Kildonan, where a field has yielded wheat for fifty consecutive years, without a particle of manure ever having been placed on the land." Possibly this is the case referred to by Dr. Macgregor.

32½ lbs., and 36 in. round, 12 lbs. being a common weight in heavy crops; carrots, 3 in. to 5 in. in diameter, 14 in. to 18 in. long, and weighing 11 lbs.; onions, 14 in. to 16 in. in circumference, and weighing 1½ lbs. each; mangel wurzel, 27 lbs. each; beet, 23 lbs. each; citrons, 18 lbs. each; squash, 5 ft. 6 in. round, &c.

The reports furnished by a number of English tenant farmers' delegates, who visited Canada in 1879 and 1880, at the request of the Minister of Agriculture, might also be cited to show the suitability of Manitoba and other provinces for settlement.

System of Survey.

The mode of laying out the land in Manitoba—and the same system is in operation in the North-West Territories—is very simple. Every township is about six miles square, and is divided into sections of one mile square, or 640 acres. These sections are subdivided into half-sections of 320 acres and quarter-sections of 160 acres, and further into half-quarters, and these terms are the statutory definitions of the divisions and subdivisions of land in Manitoba and throughout the North-West Territories. The townships are laid out on certain "base lines," twenty-four miles apart, running east and west, to the depth of two townships, both to the north and to the south, upon each. Half-way between the base lines are lines called "connection lines"; upon these adjacent townships, surveyed from different base lines, abut, and on them all discrepancies of survey arising from the convergence of meridians or other causes, are adjusted. Further, the townships are arranged in tiers running from south to north and starting from the southern frontier, which is the international boundary line. These tiers are marked on the map with ordinary numerals, and the several "ranges" of townships are also numbered laterally with Roman numerals, starting at lines which are called "principal meridians," and running east and west of such lines. The first principal meridian starts from a point on the international boundary line, about 11 miles west of the town of Emerson, and the second is established on the 102nd meridian of west longitude, the third, fourth, and fifth being identical with the 106th, 110th, and 114th meridians respectively. Thus Township 3, Range III., west, would be three townships north of the boundary line, and three townships west of the principal meridian; Township 3, Range III., east, would occupy a similar position to the east of the same meridian. In like manner, any section of a township may be readily found on the map. The boundaries of these sections being all laid out on the cardinal points of the compass, the section is divided into east half and west half, or north half and south half; the half sections are similarly divided into north-east quarter, north-west quarter, and so on, and these terms are also statutory definitions in Manitoba and the North-West Territories. This method not only defines the different portions of land with precision, but greatly facilitates also the transfer and conveyance of property. The surveyed lines are marked in the ground itself by indicating posts at the corners of the plots, and when the settler has made himself acquainted with this system, he has no difficulty in understanding the position of any farm in the country, or in telling exactly where he is when travelling, and his distance from any other point.

A settler may obtain a grant of 160 acres of land free on *even numbered* sections, on condition of three years' residence and cultivation, and pay-

ment of an office fee amounting to 10 dollars (£2 sterling); and he may obtain the adjoining portions of sections by "pre-emption" or otherwise, at the rate of 2 dollars (8*s.*) or 2·50 dollars (10*s.*) per acre. The privilege of pre-emption will, however, cease after January 1st, 1887, unless extended during the present session of Parliament. Intending settlers should take notice that they are entitled to enter at the nearest Government lands office for a free grant of a quarter section on any even-numbered unoccupied land in Manitoba or the North-West, whether or not such section is near a railway or comes within the reserves of any of the Colonization Companies. But section 8 and three-quarters of section 26, in each township, are excepted, being reserved for the Hudson's Bay Company, who are entitled to one-twentieth of the lands of the "Fertile Belt," estimated at 7,000,000 acres, under agreement with the Crown.

Odd numbered sections (except Nos. 11 and 29) for 24 miles on each side of the Canadian Pacific Railway, may generally be regarded as the Company's lands, apportioned to them by the Government of Canada as part of the grant of 25,000,000 acres, made in aid of their great undertaking. Nos. 11 and 29 in each township are school lands, *i.e.* the proceeds of their sale are to be applied in support of education. Outside the railway belt the odd-numbered sections are offered for sale by the Government at 2 dollars per acre.

The following diagram illustrates the arrangement of the sections in each township of six miles square :—

N

31	32	33	34	35	36
30	School Lands.	28	27	H. B. Co.'s Lands.	25
19	20	21	22	23	24
18	17	16	15	14	13
7	H. B. Co.'s Lands.	9	10	School Lands.	12
6	5	4	3	2	1

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It should be added that the lands belonging to the Canadian Pacific Railway Company may also be purchased at 2·50 dollars (10*s.*) an acre and upwards, with conditions requiring cultivation; and other lands are offered by them for sale without such conditions. The lands reserved to the Hudson's Bay Company may also be obtained at current prices. Other

lands, partly improved, may be bought from time to time of private proprietors on reasonable terms.

Further particulars relative to the sale of Dominion lands may be obtained on application at the office of the High Commissioner of Canada, 9, Victoria Chambers, Westminster, S.W.; or of the Commissioner of Dominion lands, Winnipeg, Manitoba. Detailed regulations respecting the Canadian Pacific Railway Company's lands will be supplied by Mr. Alexander Begg, General Emigration Agent of the Company, 88, Cannon Street, E.C., or by the Company's Land Commissioner, Mr. John H. McTavish, Winnipeg.

CHAPTER XVI.

AGRICULTURE IN THE NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES.

HAVING described the agriculture of the first and nearest of the three great prairie steppes, or plateaux—that which lies within the province of Manitoba, comprising about 7,000 square miles of the best wheat-growing land in the world—we are brought to the remaining two. The second steppe, which has an area of about 105,000 square miles, extends for a distance of about 250 miles along the boundary line between Canada and the United States, and is of a rich, undulating character, most favourable for settlement and cultivation. Its general aspect is thus depicted by the Rev. Dr. MacGregor, in the article already quoted:—"This second plateau, which appears at one time to have been completely covered by forest, comprehends the splendid countries watered by the Souris River, the Assiniboine, the Little Saskatchewan, and the Qu'Appelle. No words can exaggerate the prettiness and the richness of the country along the line at which we crossed it. No words can convey the impression produced by travelling day after day, in the most delightful weather, through this magnificent land, and finding ever as we moved onward that the fertility remained wasted and hungering for the plough. From the time we entered that second steppe till we struck the North Saskatchewan, a journey occupying fifteen days, the general character of the country may be described as that of vast rolling plains from ten to thirty miles broad, stretching as far as the eye can see and covered with rich succulent grasses, these plains lying between long and broad ridges of upland from five to ten miles across, running mainly north-west and south-east, and dotted with clumps of copse or bush. . . . Taking notes of the country as we journeyed on, I find the words 'park-like,' 'copsy glades,' &c., occurring with almost wearisome reiteration. Here, for example, is what I note of the prairie near Humboldt, the largest and cleanest we have yet seen, stretching absolutely treeless north-west and south-east far beyond vision: 'It was a fine breezy day as we drove along those vast downs, rolling like a lumpy sea, the colour precisely that of the Cheviots in autumn, and covered with rich close-piled and flower-flushed grass. As we reached a higher rising ground than usual and looked around upon the boundless plain, unbroken by rock, or tree, or shrub, as smooth-shaven as a well-kept lawn, the expression would force itself to the lips, 'Wonderful!'"

The third steppe, commencing at the 104th meridian and extending to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, is not so well suited to agriculture as the

other two, but is admirably adapted for grazing purposes, and numerous cattle ranches have been already established.

Out of the territory covered by these steppes the Dominion Government formed, in 1882, for the convenience of settlers and for postal purposes, four provisional districts, named respectively Assiniboia, 95,000 square miles, Saskatchewan, 114,000 square miles, Alberta, 100,000 square miles, and Athabasca, 122,000 square miles, thus closely following the extension of the Canadian Pacific Railway to the far west. Of these districts, Athabasca is rather larger, and the others smaller, than the area of the British Isles (121,115 square miles). Their boundary lines have been defined with sufficient precision in a previous page.

All that has been said of the province of Manitoba, its resources and farming operations, apply equally to the North-West Territories. These latter, however, must derive immense impetus from the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and from the further development of railway communication. The Manitoba and North-Western Railway Company are already engaged on a line from Portage la Prairie, in Manitoba, to Prince Albert, on the North Saskatchewan, a distance of about 380 miles as the crow flies, and have a land concession of 2,750,000 acres adjacent thereto, of which, as they proceed with their undertaking, they acquire the right to sell a proportionate amount. Many other railways are also being projected.

Assiniboia.

The capital of Assiniboia is Regina, situated near the centre of the province, and this is also the seat of Government of the North-West Territories, and the headquarters of the mounted police. Other towns in the province, some of which have sprung up with great rapidity in the neighbourhood of the Canadian Pacific Railway, are Broadview, Qu'Appelle, Moose Jaw, Medicine Hat, Indian Head, and Moosomin.

The official statistics relative to the North-West Territory are at present necessarily very meagre, but the averages deduced from the returns sent in are regarded by the Department of Agriculture as "extremely satisfactory," and as demonstrating conclusively the extreme fertility of the North-West; and this view is quite borne out by the experience of independent observers. Professor Fream, who bases his conclusions on replies received from settlers, in response to a series of queries propounded by the authorities of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and who is quite satisfied as to their *bonâ fide* character, says:—"Most of the settlers in the North-West are poor, and a great many are forced to commence their operations with oxen only, being at first unable to afford horses. The tillage work of the prairie is of a simple character, and as the sulky plough is so constructed as to seat the driver, even the ordinary skill of the ploughman is not a necessity. The first field operation is that of 'breaking;' the top soil is turned over to a depth of from two to three inches, and in a slice varying from a foot to sixteen inches broad, May, June, and July being the best months for this work. 'Back-setting' follows in August and September, and consists in ploughing between the slices and turning the original surface to the top again, or, in some cases, wedging it up. Then, in April or May, after the long frost of winter has crumbled the soil and produced a good tilth, the land is ready for seeding and harrowing. Sometimes sowing 'on the sod' is resorted to in spring, as in the case of oats, for example; the seed is

sown on the surface of the prairie, which is then subjected to breaking, a sod a couple of inches thick being turned over. . . . Each correspondent was requested by the railway authorities to state the nature of the soil on his farm and the depth of black loam. At Moose Jaw the soil is reported various, but all good, with 6 in. to 12 in. of loam; at Regina, a black clay loam of unknown depth; at Moosomin, black loam, from 8 in. to 22 in. deep, with sand or clay sub-soil. . . . Fuel, abundant in some localities, is very scarce in others, but the opening up of coal and lignite deposits in the North-West, and the increasing facilities for railway transport, will gradually place the settlers more on an equality in this respect. Wood is chiefly used, though that has sometimes to be drawn long distances. Water is obtained mostly from wells, sometimes from creeks, and in rare cases has to be drawn some distance. The yields per acre for wheat vary between 25 and 40 bushels, the most usual estimate being 30. Barley ranges from 25 to 50 bushels, 40 being the most common estimate. Oats yield from 35 to 75 bushels, the usual quantity being about 50. Inferior yields are attributed by the farmers themselves to bad tillage or absence of back-setting. Garden vegetables, and particularly potatoes, are favourably reported. . . . Stock are scarce, '67 cattle and 3 horses,' and '30 horses and 20 head of cattle,' being the largest returns from individual farmers. At Moose Jaw cattle do excellently on the prairie hay. They are stabled in winter if the weather is very bad, but are out most days. At Wolseley cattle fatten well on prairie hay alone, which was there cut 66 inches long last summer. The general opinion is decidedly favourable to the maintenance of sheep, though there is at present a drawback in the want of a market for the wool. . . . Eighty-four farmers expressed themselves as satisfied with the country, the climate, and their prospects; but some say more railways are necessary. Some want the Hudson Bay Railway to be made, and ask for free trade in lumber and machinery, the duty of 33 per cent. on farm implements from the States being objectionable. Notwithstanding this tariff, the American machinery seems to hold its place against that made in Canada; quite half the implements on the Bell Farm are of American manufacture. Asked whether they had suffered any serious loss from storms during either summer or winter, 154 farmers replied briefly in the negative. Of the 60 remaining answers one-third were adverse; hail, heavy rains, or frost causing the mischief, though the injury from frost is sometimes acknowledged to be due to late sowing. . . . During the long winter the soil becomes frozen to a depth of six or seven feet, and as the upper layers thaw first and allow seeding to be effected, the progressive thawing of the lower layers, as the summer heat increases, provides an ascending current of moisture, which, meeting with the heat from above, constitutes a kind of natural hot-bed, and this phenomenon no doubt partly accounts for the very rapid rate at which vegetation proceeds during the brief period of growth."

The Bell Farm and the Benbecula Colony.

The Assiniboia district comprises the well-known Bell Farm, so-called from the name of its manager, Major W. R. Bell, and the Benbecula Colony, settled by the crofters sent out from the estate of Lady Gordon-Cathcart. The Bell Farm is situated in the valley of the Qu'Appelle river, at Indian Head, 312 miles west of Winnipeg, and is included in the

operations of the Qu'Appelle Valley Farming Company, formed in 1882 with a capital of £120,000 in £20 shares, of which about half is paid up. This immense experimental farm extends over an area of about 64,000 acres, and each section of a square mile (640 acres) is divided into three equal portions, the cultivation of each of these being entrusted to one man, subject to a general control. Comfortable houses and stables are built at the corners of these smaller sections, in such a way that four homesteads are adjacent, an arrangement which is serviceable in many ways. A man and his team are able to cultivate two-thirds of the allotted land, thus leaving one-third fallow every year, not only for its recuperation, but also for the destruction of weeds. The harvesting is done by the self-binder, and the threshing by powerful steam machinery.

Professor Fream, who visited the Bell Farm on 14th September, 1884, in company with Sir Richard Temple and Professor Sheldon, says, in 'A Report on Canada and its Agricultural Resources,' issued under the authority of the Department of Agriculture :—"In 1883 the area of wheat grown was 4,000 acres, it was sown without backsetting and gave an average yield of 20 bushels an acre. In the present year, 1884, there are 7,000 acres under wheat, and next year it is proposed to have no less than 14,000 acres of wheat. The harvest is usually over by the middle of August, but this year the season was somewhat backward, and harvest operations were in full swing in the middle of September. Thirty-eight reaping machines were at work simultaneously at the ingathering of the crop, and the sheaves as they come from the self-binders are left in the field for a day or two and then carried to the threshing machines, so that the wheat never goes into stack. The grain is delivered from the threshing machines into large wooden granaries erected in the fields, whence in winter it is sleighed across the snow to the elevators adjacent to the railway. The soil is a dark-coloured clay loam of great depth, and a three-horse team with a sulky plough, working on a sixteen-inch furrow, can turn up two acres a day, the cost on the Bell Farm being 1 dollar 90 cents per acre, equivalent to 7*s.* 11*d.* The seed is sown broadcast on the rough fallow in March, at the rate of 1½ bushel per acre, and this is followed by two or three harrowings. It was found practicable, with the machines already mentioned, to cut as much as 800 acres of wheat per day, so that at this rate the entire 7,000 acres could be cut in nine working days. The yield this year was expected to be 25 bushels an acre, and, on this estimate it would not cost more than 33 cents per bushel to grow, which is equivalent to 11*s.* per quarter. About 300 horses were found necessary this year, and through the summer they are occupied in breaking new land or in ploughing fallow land for the next spring's sowings. As soon as harvest is finished they would all be engaged in ploughing till the winter's frosts closed the ploughing season. A good heavy cart-horse, weighing say 1,400 lbs., costs from 180 to 190 dollars, or about £38. In summer 135 men are employed, and about half this number in winter. The summer labourers are paid at the rate of 30 dollars (£6 5*s.* 0*d.*) a month and all found. The resident labourers get a cottage and one acre of land free, with 35 dollars a month in summer and 30 dollars a month in winter. The first foreman gets 50 dollars a month, and the four head foremen 40 dollars a month each, and all found. The farm is worked in five divisions, and Major Bell telephones instructions to each division from his residence every evening. The hours of work are from

7 A.M. to 6 P.M. with one hour out. This season the farm also grew 500 acres of oats, which yield from 50 to 60 bushels per acre, and are largely used in feeding the horses; also 400 acres of flax, the seed from which would sell at 75 cents a bushel, and the land would go into wheat. This summer 1,400 tons of prairie hay were got in, and for this it would be simply necessary to mow the prairie. An examination of the standing wheat at harvest-time showed it to be a good, clean, regular crop. Only one variety was grown, that known as Red Fyfe, or No. 1 Hard, and it yielded a dry, bright, marketable sample. No 'docking' or weeding of any sort has yet been found necessary, and there is no trace of the red poppy which is such a pest in English corn-fields. The straw is of fair length, beautifully clean, and quite free from rust. Only sixty head of cattle are kept, and the straw is mostly burnt. A good example has been set at Bell Farm, in the planting of trees; last spring 25 miles of poplar trees were set out, they cost 10 cents each and were planted 20 feet apart, so that the cost per single row per mile was 26 dollars, equivalent to £7 8*s.* 4*d.*"

The Bell Farm has been set on foot with colonizing intentions, and it is proposed, when the whole area has been brought under cultivation, to divide it into 300 farms, each with dwelling-house, stabling, and shedding. The farms with their equipment will then be valued, and offered to the men who have worked them at the valuation price, with liberty to render payment in five or ten annual instalments. As at present conducted it is, as Professor Fream observes, "an interesting phase of prairie farming, but it is farming with much of the poetry taken out of it."

In the Benbecula Colony, situate about ten miles south of the Wapella railway-station, an advance of £100 was made to each crofter, the land itself (160 acres for each farm) being taken as security for repayment, with interest at six per cent. The farming has been very rough but successful, and the crofters, released from their old struggles and fears, speak in terms of the deepest gratitude of Lady Gordon-Cathcart, to whom they owe so momentous and rapid a change in their fortunes. In the same district a similar effort has been made by a number of ladies and gentlemen, including the Baroness Burdett-Coutts, Mr. Burdett-Coutts, Sir Francis de Winton, Sir John W. Ellis, and Mr. James Rankin, who raised a sum of £1,500 for the purpose of assisting some families from the East-end of London and from Westminster to emigrate. Each family had an advance of £100 under the terms of the Dominion Land Act, and they were sent out with their families under proper guidance, placed in homesteads near Moosomin, and instructed how to proceed. The Rev. Hugh Huleatt, Vicar of St. John's, Cambridge Road, E., has taken great interest in this emigration scheme, in which many of his poor parishioners have participated, with a success surpassing the expectations of its promoters. Mr. Huleatt has crossed the Atlantic more than once to visit his old neighbours, and finds them well satisfied with the change in their lot; only one man, having put his hand to the plough, has shown a preference for his old life and has returned to London. It is interesting to add that specimens of their farm and garden produce were brought over to decorate St. John's Church at the annual harvest festival. Professor Tanner has also visited both sets of colonists, and confirms the statements of others as to their fresh start in life. Lady Hobart and other philanthropists have also engaged in similar efforts at the East end, with satisfactory results.

Saskatchewan and Alberta.

The district of Saskatchewan lies to the north of Assiniboia, and both lie for the greater part on the third steppe, which commences at the 104th meridian. Beyond them, on the west, the district of Alberta stretches to the base of the Rocky Mountains. Saskatchewan, lying wide of the Canadian Pacific Railway, has not advanced so far towards colonization as Assiniboia and Alberta, but contains the flourishing settlements of Prince Albert, Battleford, and others. As the great Saskatchewan River and its two branches pass through great part of its territory, it is a district with great resources, whose development only awaits the construction of railways, already projected.

Alberta (so named after Her Royal Highness the Princess Louise Caroline Alberta) is in its western part strikingly different from the countries already described, for it there lies under the shadow of the Rocky Mountains, from which it derives scenery of the utmost beauty and sublimity. At present it is more devoted to cattle-raising than to agriculture, the fine grazing lands and rich herbage in the Bow River district, south of Calgary, being occupied by numerous cattle ranches, which in 1884 included about 60,000 head of neat stock, besides large numbers of sheep and horses, although only three years earlier the number of cattle did not exceed 3,000. Professor Fream enumerates no fewer than 27 ranches, with upwards of 45,000 head of neat stock, in addition to 5,550 horses, and states that one of the best known is the Cochrane Ranch, on which cattle at three years' old attain a weight of from 1,200 lbs. to 1,300 lbs., worth £13 a head on the spot. The Dominion Government grants leases of sections of these grazing lands at the nominal rent of one cent (½*d.*) per acre, the lessee undertaking to place one head of cattle—the term including bulls, oxen, cows, or horses—on every ten acres included in his holding, and his agreement is for 21 years, during which he agrees not to use the land for any but grazing purposes, and not to graze sheep without written permission from the Minister of the Interior.

Questions having been raised as to the suitability of Alberta for general farming purposes, in 1883 the Canadian Pacific Railway established a number of experimental holdings between Moose Jaw and Calgary (the capital of the province), a distance of 400 miles, said to have been largely made up of desert and alkali lands. On the 12th of October the necessary teams, men, and outfit were despatched by train to occupy stations decided on beforehand. In all, ten stations were established, and it was originally intended to break the soil at once, to backset in 1884, and so prepare a good seed-bed for the spring of 1885. But the character of the soil determined those who had charge of the expedition to attempt to raise crops at once off the sod. Accordingly in March, 1884, another train left Winnipeg with seed and implements for sowing, and the general result was as follows: wheat, 21½ bushels per acre; oats, 44¼ bushels; barley, 23¾ bushels; and peas, 12½ bushels. Wheat weighed from 59 lbs. to 63 lbs. to the bushel; oats, from 36¼ lbs. to 43¼ lbs.; barley, 48 lbs. to 52 lbs.; and peas, 64 lbs. Mr. Mackenzie, the late Premier of Canada, who was amongst those who were sceptical as to the suitability of these plains for cultivation, visited the farms, and expressed his astonishment at such favourable results; which

lead to the conclusion that the lands in question, and others like them, at elevations varying from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the sea-level, will under proper management yield returns not inferior to those obtained in the plains of Manitoba.

British Columbia.

The territory lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean is by far the largest of the confederated provinces, and, by reason of its geographical position, may not be unfitly dealt with here, although, being a province of itself, it does not form part of the enormous expanse known as the North-West Territories. Inclusive of Vancouver Island and Queen Charlotte Island, it covers an area of 341,305 square miles, and its possession is of the utmost importance to the Dominion, because of its large extent of seaboard, with its numerous harbours and inlets.

British Columbia cannot be regarded as an agricultural province throughout its whole extent, but it has large tracts of land suitable for farming, and still wider domains adapted to grazing purposes. In some parts the land requires irrigation in order to render it productive, but this is easily obtainable, and land so treated, at an elevation of 1,700 feet above the sea-level, yielded in 1883 as much as 40 bushels of wheat to the acre. The grazing land is of immense extent, and the qualities of the grass are highly nutritive. At the north-east corner of the province, in the Peace River district, south of the 59th parallel, there is a wide expanse of land—between 5,000 and 6,000 square miles—of which Dr. Dawson, when giving evidence before a Parliamentary Committee, spoke as likely to be brought eventually under cultivation, and as being capable, throughout the greater part of its area, of producing a sure and satisfactory crop of wheat.

The Marquis of Lorne, in a speech delivered at Victoria, Vancouver Island, during his visit to this province, thus referred to its resources and prospects:—"Throughout the interior it will probably pay well in the future to have flocks of sheep. The demand for wool and woollen goods will always be very large among the people now crowding in such numbers to those regions which our official world as yet calls the North-West, but which is the North-east and East to you. There is no reason why British Columbia should not be for this portion of our territory what California is to the States in the supply afforded of fruits. The perfection attained by small fruits is unrivalled, and it is only with the peninsula of Ontario that you would have to compete for the supplies of grapes, peaches, pears, apples, cherries, plums, apricots, and currants." His Excellency further said:—"For men possessing from £200 to £600, I can conceive no more attractive occupation than the care of cattle, or a cereal farm within your borders. Wherever there is open land the wheat crops rival the best-grown elsewhere, while there is nowhere any dearth of ample provision of fuel and lumber for the winter. As you get your colonization roads pushed and the dykes along the Fraser River built, you will have a larger available acreage, for there are quiet straths and valleys hidden away among the rich forests which would provide comfortable farms. As in the North-West last year, so this year, I have taken down the evidence of settlers, and this has been wonderfully favourable. To say the truth, I was rather hunting for grumblers, and found only one. He was a young man of super-sensitiveness from one of our comfortable Ontario cities."

Unsurveyed or unreserved Crown lands may be purchased in tracts of not less than 160 acres for one dollar per acre; and surveyed lands, not town-sites or Indian settlements, may, after they have been offered for sale by public auction, be obtained at the same rate.

The settlement and cultivation of these vast fertile plains, and the development of the mineral and other resources of British Columbia, must open up new and important markets for the industries of Eastern Canada, while the railway also ensures markets to the Prairie and Pacific provinces for their produce and future manufactures. British Columbia, in the opinion of many, is destined to become a manufacturing country, as it contains timber and coal, iron, and other minerals in large quantities, and has an extensive sea coast with innumerable harbours. The railway also offers an opening for an extended export trade. Hitherto the markets of China and Japan, New Zealand, Australasia, India, and the Pacific coast of South America have been closed to Canada, but she is now about to gain access to them, under advantageous conditions, being nearer to those countries than Great Britain or any European nation. In order to show this, the following distances from British Columbia are quoted :—

Yokohama	4,300 miles.
Hong Kong	5,860 ,,
Singapore	7,010 ,,
Calcutta	8,930 ,,
Auckland	6,080 ,,
Brisbane	6,530 ,,
Sydney	6,780 ,,
Melbourne	7,330 ,,

In each case there is a saving of several thousand miles, as compared with the distances from England by the Cape, or by the Suez canal.

Before long vessels will be passing regularly between Vancouver, China, and Japan, connecting there with India and the East; and direct communication with New Zealand and Australia is only a question of time. It does not require a vivid stretch of the imagination to see in the future, in some British Columbian port, the Liverpool of the Pacific, with a large export and import trade, and lines of magnificent steamers plying between it and the countries above named, laden with merchandise and passengers. Canada has a large number of vessels on the shipping register, mostly owned in the Atlantic ports, but there is no reason why a similar prosperity and marine development should not await the Canada of the Pacific. It is to be hoped that Her Majesty's mails to the East will soon be conveyed by the new route to those places to which the distance has been shortened.

CHAPTER XVII.

AGRICULTURE IN THE EASTERN PROVINCES.

THE eastern provinces, including Ontario, Quebec, and the maritime provinces of Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, having been subject to colonizing influences for a much longer period than those already dealt with, their resources are better understood, and will not de-

mand such extended notice as that which has been accorded to the western territories. Farming operations, though common to all the eastern provinces, vary somewhat in character, the agriculture of Ontario being of the British type, but with a larger proportion of grain, and less pasture, and consequently with fewer cattle and sheep; whilst in Quebec the mode of farming is suggestive of a large market-gardening system, and in the maritime provinces, barley, oats, and potatoes are the staple productions.

Ontario.

Ontario, the wealthiest and most populous province of the Dominion, has an area of 181,800 square miles, and a population at the census of 1881 of nearly 2,000,000. Within its borders are Toronto, its capital and the seat of the Provincial Government, with a population of 125,000: Hamilton, with a population of 36,000; Ottawa, the administrative capital of Canada, and the home of the Dominion Legislature, with over 31,000; London, over 19,000; and Kingston, about 15,000. Returns collected by the Ontario Bureau of Industries show that in 1882 the total area occupied as farms was 19,622,429 acres, of which about half was cleared of the timber which at one time covered this part of the country. The total value of such land was £126,468,500, and buildings, implements, and live stock increased this amount to £176,525,122. In addition to the usual farm crops, there were 6,157 acres of flax, 2,051 acres of hops, 213,846 acres of orchards and gardens, and 2,098 acres of vineyards. Tobacco and sugar beet were also profitable crops. The live stock included 23,619 thoroughbred cattle (Durhams, Devons, Herefords, Aberdeen Polls, Galloways, and Ayrshires), and 1,562,683 grade and native cattle. The cheese factories numbered 471, and returns from 306 of these showed that 25,562,431 lbs. of cheese were made, valued at £553,417. The extent of under-draining is indicated by the fact that one-third of the tile-yards in the province made enough tiles in 1882 to lay more than 1,000 miles of drains.

In 1884 the average rent per acre of leased farms ranged from 4*s.* 1*d.* per acre in Muskoka county to 14*s.* 4*d.* in Durham county, the average being 11*s.* The average wages of farm hands, with board, ranged from £29 12*s.* per year in Welland county to £39 4*s.* in Algoma county, the average being £33 8*s.* Without board, wages ranged from £43 12*s.* in Parry Sound county to £61 12*s.* in Algoma county, the average being £51 8*s.* Monthly wages, with board, ranged from £3 10*s.* in Brant county to £4 15*s.* in Algoma county, average £3 18*s.*; without board, they ranged from £5 2*s.* in Prince Edward county to £6 12*s.* in Algoma county, average £5 16*s.* During the first half of 1884, the following were the average prices per bushel of farm produce in the province:—Fall wheat, 4*s.* 1d.; spring wheat, 4*s.* 2*d.*; barley, 2*s.* 6*d.*; oats, 1*s.* 9*d.*; rye, 2*s.* 6*d.*; Indian corn, 2*s.* 1*d.*; beans, 6*s.* 3*d.*; peas, 3*s.* On the Toronto live-stock market, the average prices per cwt. were:—cattle, £1; calves, £2 sheep, £1 1*s.*; pigs, £1 7*s.*

The following figures relate to the crops in Ontario in 1884:—Fall wheat, 864,551 acres, 18,479,207 bushels; spring wheat, 722,410 acres, 13,251,137 bushels; barley, 701,435 acres, 17,860,777 bushels; oats, 1,485,620 acres, 53,195,805 bushels, rye, 104,141 acres, 1,621,667 bushels;

peas, 570,628 acres, 13,253,986 bushels; Indian corn, 174,834 acres; buckwheat, 65,921 acres; beans, 24,877 acres, 552,953 bushels; hay, 2,193,369 acres, 3,044,912 tons; potatoes, 168,862 acres; mangolds, 18,314 acres; carrots, 10,980 acres; turnips, 104,108 acres; pasture, 2,794,986 acres.

The number of live stock in Ontario in 1884 was as follows:—Horses, 535,953; cattle, 1,925,670; sheep, 1,890,733; pigs, 916,158; poultry, 6,237,606. The total clip of wool was 6,518,918 lbs., and the average weight of the fleeces was 5·55 lbs. for coarse wool, and 5·12 lbs. for fine wool.

Cheese-making is carried on with success, on the co-operative factory system, the milk being collected by a waggon from the factory, and tested by a lactometer, after which each farmer is credited accordingly; and the returns, less expenses, are divided amongst the contributors, or "patrons." Cheese-markets are established at various centres; and returns made in 1882 from 266 factories showed that milk was supplied from 85,226 cows, and the average return to the patrons, of whom there were 13,349, was £33, the average value of cheese per cow being £5. The total quantity of butter made in the province in 1882 was 306,567 cwt., and in 1883, 293,252 cwt.

Fruit-growing is carried on in this province on a very extensive scale, suggestive as to the ripening qualities of the climate. There are vineyards 50 or 60 acres in extent, peach orchards of similar dimensions, and innumerable apple orchards. In the latter, 84 varieties of apples are cultivated, fully half of which are winter fruit, and they have become a staple article of export. In 1869 the value of the export was less than £5,000, whereas a dozen years later it reached £100,000. The summer trade in strawberries (which are raised as a field crop) is enormous, and the culture of grapes is increasing, the largest vineyards being in the counties of Wentworth, Welland, Lincoln, Kent, and Essex.

The Ontario Agricultural College, at Guelph, the only institution of its kind in Canada, supplies a general education, combined with technical training in agriculture; and attached thereto is the Ontario Experimental Farm, comprising 550 acres, of which 400 are cleared. Both these institutions have been of the highest value to Canadian agriculture. The cost of the College to the province was £5,160 in 1883, and £4,506 in 1884. The students meet part of their expenses by the labour they perform on the farm, and the entire cost to an Ontario farmer's son, able and willing, ranges from £10 to £15 a year (according to his experience in farm work), for board, washing, and tuition. For students from other provinces, the cost ranges from £15 to £20 a year.

Quebec.

This, the oldest province of the Dominion, extends over 188,688 square miles, not including the area of great waters. It is divided into two parts by the mighty river St. Lawrence, upon which its capital, Quebec, and the city of Montreal, at the southern extremity of the province, are situated. The banks of the St. Lawrence are remarkable for their picturesque beauty, and the city of Quebec is almost unexampled in this respect, its splendid site affording some of the most charm-

ing views depicted by the facile pencil of Her Royal Highness the Princess Louise, as accompaniments to the graphic description of the Marquis of Lorne in the work already quoted. Professor Fream, diverted for the moment from the more prosaic objects of agricultural inquiry, thus dwells on the features of the scene:—"As the Atlantic steamers wend their way along the bosom of the majestic St. Lawrence, the traveller acquires a good idea not only of the immensity of this famous river, but also of the physical features of the province of Quebec. On either bank he sees a broad alluvial plain clothed with forest trees down to the water's edge, except where extensive clearances have been made, and the background is effectively occupied by ranges of hills. Near the shores, and particularly on the south side, are to be seen the white houses of the French settlers, sometimes aggregated into villages and towns, but more frequently dotted along in one straggling line for more than a hundred miles. Here and there the sombre hue of the woodlands is varied by the glittering spire of a Roman Catholic Church, for the French Canadians have adhered to their faith, to their language, and it might almost be said to their farming. . . . The Laurentian Mountains on the north, and the Adirondacks, Notre Dame, and Green Mountains on the south, are the most prominent features in the landscape. The valleys of the Laurentians have been scooped out by innumerable streams which abound in fish, and their slopes are thickly covered with the timber which supplies the extensive lumbering trade of the province. . . . During winter the St. Lawrence is frozen over sufficiently to permit of traffic being carried on across it between the two sides of the river, and everybody has heard of the ice carnival at Montreal in February. 'A visitor in winter is sure to be impressed with the weird scene in early morning or evening, when, from a sky as warm with rosy tints as in midsummer, the level beams of sunlight, glancing and brightening over the sea of quiet snowy furrows, and glittering icy crests, strike along the line of evergreens marking the ice roads, upon the trains of sleighs, and light up the tinned roofs and steeples of the distant city with brilliant splendour.'"

The population of the province, according to the census of 1881, was 1,359,027, three-fourths of whom are of French origin. The city of Quebec has a population of about 65,000, and Montreal, the great commercial centre of Canada, has three times that number. The French mode of farming is far more primitive than that adopted by English settlers in Richmond, Sherbrooke, Compton, and other eastern townships. Professor Fream "saw men on their knees cutting corn with the sickle, and dogs harnessed to carts of farm or garden produce;" but the people were happy and contented, with an air of substantial comfort about them.

The most important trade in Quebec is the lumber industry, the timber exports of 1885 amounting to no less than 8,798,094 dollars; and it has been found necessary for the Provincial Government to take up the question of preserving and replanting forests, and of planting trees along the highways and on farms, in order to compensate for the reckless felling of timber. An annual "arbour-day," devoted to this work, is now one of the institutions of the province, not before some provision of this kind is required, for although there is yet sufficient timber to yield a revenue (in 1883) of £171,375 from the Crown lands alone, the province has in places been too much denuded of wood.

The following agricultural statistics relating to the province are supplied by the census returns of 1881 :—

Field products, in bushels: Spring wheat, 1,999,815, not quite 9 bushels per acre; winter wheat, 19,819; barley, 1,751,539; oats, 19,990,205; rye, 430,242; peas and beans, 4,170,456; buckwheat, 2,041,670; Indian corn, 888,169; potatoes, 14,873,287; turnips, 1,572,476; other roots, 2,050,904; grass and clover seed, 119,306. There were also 1,614,906 tons of hay, the produce of 1,495,494 acres, the average being 1·08 tons per acre.

Animals and their products: Horses, 225,006; colts and fillies, 48,846; working oxen, 49,237; milch cows, 490,977; other horned cattle, 490,119; sheep, 889,833; swine, 329,199; cattle killed or sold, 160,207; sheep killed or sold, 436,336; swine killed or sold, 333,159; wool, 2,730,546 lbs.; hay, 559,024 lbs.

Indian corn, tomatoes, grapes, and other delicate fruits are ripened in the open air, and some parts are very favourable for the growth of apples and plums. Hemp, flax, and tobacco are also grown, and yield large crops.

The rich pastures of the hillsides and the abundant streams of clear water make the province very suitable for dairying, and excellent butter and cheese are made. The extension of the railway system has greatly facilitated the development of this trade, and butter and cheese factories are rapidly increasing in numbers, 400 new ones having been established in one year (1882). The country is also admirably adapted for stock raising and grazing, to which much attention is given, great care being exercised in the selection of pure-bred stock for breeding purposes.

Improved farms may be frequently bought in the eastern townships at from £4 to £6 per acre, including dwelling-house, outbuildings, and fencing. Unimproved lands may be purchased from the Government at from 20 to 60 cents per acre, one-fifth to be paid at once, and the rest in four yearly instalments, with interest at 6 per cent. The purchaser must take possession within six months, occupy within two years, and clear, in the course of ten years, one-tenth of his holding, besides erecting a house of specified dimensions. On eight of the great colonization roads, 84,050 acres are set apart for free grants, in lots of 100 acres each. In the Ottawa Valley, and on the south of the St. Lawrence, below Quebec, farm lots are offered at 30 cents per acre.

New Brunswick.

East of Quebec is the province of New Brunswick, about 210 miles long by 180 broad, with an area of 27,174 square miles—about two-thirds the size of England. It has a coast line of about 500 miles, with numerous bays and inlets, on the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Bay of Fundy, and its fisheries are second only in importance to those of Nova Scotia, amongst the confederated provinces. The surface of the country is undulating, and its northern part is diversified by ranges of hills from 500 to 800 feet high, clothed with forest trees almost to their summits. It is intersected in every part by fine rivers, the chief of which are the St. John, navigable for large steamers from its mouth on the Bay of Fundy to Fredericton, a distance of 84 miles, and thence to Woodstock, about 70 miles farther; the Miramichi,

navigable for vessels of 1,000 tons for 25 miles, and for schooners 20 miles farther; the Restigouche, the Richibucto, and others navigable for large vessels. No country in the world is more thoroughly watered or more beautifully wooded, for not more than 5 per cent. of the province has been cleared of its timber, and its fertility is on a par with its picturesqueness.

With respect to the agriculture of New Brunswick, it appears, from the Census returns of 1881, that there were then 1,253,299 acres under cultivation, but the acreage of improved land was scarcely more than one-tenth of the area suitable for agriculture. The yield in 1881 included 521,956 bushels of wheat, 84,183 bushels of barley, 3,297,534 bushels of oats, 1,587,223 bushels of buckwheat, 6,961,016 bushels of potatoes, and 414,046 tons of hay. Rye, peas, beans, Indian corn, turnips, and other roots, were also grown. There were 40,381 acres of wheat, with an average yield of about 13 bushels to the acre; 51,362 acres of potatoes, which are very successfully grown, with an average of 135½ bushels; and 389,721 acres of hay, with an average of 1·06 ton.

The number of live stock was as follows:—Horses, 52,975; working oxen, 8,812; milch cows, 103,965; other horned cattle, 99,783; sheep, 221,163; swine, 53,087. Dairying and beef-growing are on the increase; and a diminution in the number of working oxen, combined with a corresponding increase in horses, indicates improved methods of agriculture.

New Brunswick is also noted for its fisheries, its lumber trade, and its ship-building. The fisheries, amongst those of the maritime provinces, rank only second in importance to those of Nova Scotia, being in 1884 of the value of 3,185,675 dollars. The finest salmon, cod, mackerel, herring, and shad fishing in the world can be prosecuted within sight of the coast, and the inland waters are equally prolific.

Nova Scotia.

The province of Nova Scotia (including Cape Breton Island, at its north-eastern extremity) has an area of nearly 21,000 square miles, and is connected with New Brunswick by an isthmus about 16 miles wide, being otherwise surrounded by water. Its capital is the city of Halifax, which has one of the finest harbours in the world, six miles long, with an average width of one mile, and capable of floating alongside the wharves vessels of the largest size. Owing to its insular position, the climate of Nova Scotia is said to resemble that of England, especially in its humidity, more nearly than does that of any other part of Canada. About 5,000,000 acres of land (nearly half the entire area) are suitable for cultivation, and the fertility of the soil in the western half of the province, and especially in the Annapolis Valley and around the Basin of Minas, is unsurpassed, owing to the rich marine deposits left on the coast lands by the tides of the Bay of Fundy. Large areas of the salt marshes have been reclaimed by the construction of mud dykes, or banks, and Professor Fream states that year after year these reclaimed lands will yield upwards of two tons of hay per acre, and show no sign of running out, though they may become weedy, in which case it is the practice to plough up portions at a time, at intervals of ten years or so, and to take a crop of wheat or oats, with which new grass seed is sown. The salt hay, as it is called, costs about £1 an acre to make, and is worth £5 to £6 per ton. The dyke lands cover an area of

about 70,000 acres, and the cost of reclamation ranged from £1 10*s.* to £4 per acre. On the marsh lands that have not been dyked, the grass, when cut, is drawn on to the higher slopes to cure, and is stacked on platforms, standing on piles, several feet above high-water mark, each carrying a ton or more. Ordinary dyke lands fetch from £10 to £30 per acre; others bring from £40 to £80; and in the fertile country around Grand Pré, situated on the Minas Basin, much of the meadow-land is worth from £50 to £75 per acre.

According to the Census returns of 1881, the occupied land amounted to 5,396,382 acres, of which 1,880,644 acres was improved (*i.e.* 1,859,020 acres under crop and pasture, and 21,624 acres, orchards and gardens). The following were the returns of live stock:—Horses, 46,044; colts, 11,123; working oxen, 33,275; milch cows, 137,639; other horned cattle, 154,689; sheep, 337,801; swine, 47,256; wool sold, 1,142,440 lbs.

The average yield of crops in the western counties was as follows, in bushels per acre:—Wheat, 18; barley, 35; oats, 34; rye, 21; maize, 42; buckwheat, 33; beans, 22; turnips, 420; potatoes, 250; mangolds, 500. The average yield of hay was 2 tons per acre, but as much as 4 tons* of Timothy grass and clover was secured in some districts, followed by a fair aftermath. It is stated that these figures represent the general average of the crops in the western counties, but in many places the yield is truly astonishing. In a pamphlet published under the authority of the Government of the province, Mr. Herbert Crosskill, Deputy Provincial Secretary, says:—"In King's county, a few years ago, I knew a farmer who in one season raised on a little less than one acre of land, 403 bushels of potatoes; and in Annapolis county I have frequently seen 60 bushels of shelled corn raised on an acre. In Colchester county 46 bushels of oats have been produced per acre. Mr. James E. Rathbone, of Lower Horton, King's county, cut, last summer, 5½ tons of hay (two crops) from 1⅛ acre of land; and in 1870 he raised on the same piece of ground 74 bushels of barley. Beet, carrots, parsnips, beans, peas, squash, pumpkins, melons, tomatoes, &c., are raised in large quantities. We sometimes see squash at our agricultural exhibitions weighing from 100 to 150 lbs. each. Broom corn, sorghum (Chinese sugar-cane), and tobacco have been successfully grown, a proof of the warmth of the climate and fertility of the soil. The crops of hay, timothy and clover, and coarse 'salt grass,' that are raised on the dyked lands and marshes in the counties of Hants, King's, Annapolis, and Cumberland, are sometimes almost incredible. I have seen four tons of 2,240 lbs. of timothy and clover taken off a single acre, besides a light second crop late in the season."

The cultivation of fruit in Nova Scotia has made tremendous strides. Thirty years ago apples were imported into the province; now the annual shipment to Europe approaches half-a-million barrels of three bushels each, worth in the English market from 20*s.* to 24*s.* per barrel. Professor Fream gives the following particulars collected by him in the orchard districts around Port William:—"An orchard of six acres was pointed out to me which would yield 1,000 barrels of apples, and they would sell for £500. Gathering and packing would cost 5*d.* per barrel, and 10 barrels might be filled by one person in a fair day's work. The barrels can be bought at

* It should be borne in mind that the Canadian ton is only 2,000 lbs.

from 10*d.* to 1*s.* each. Young apple trees, fit for transportation, cost from 1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.* each, and to plant an acre, at the rate of 40 to the acre, involves an outlay of from £5 to £6, which includes the cost of both labour and trees. Labourers' wages in the neighbourhood are from 25*s.* to 30*s.* a week during the busy season, and from 15*s.* to 17*s.* in winter, and the cost of living is less than in England."

In 1885 the agricultural export of the province was valued at £1,004,540, including cattle sent to Europe, potatoes exported to the United States, and apples shipped at Annapolis.

Efforts are being made to induce the Government to establish an agricultural college and experimental farm, which would doubtless give an impetus to farming. At present, notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, the colonists are to some extent diverted from the full development of this pursuit by the other industries of the province, fishing, mining, and shipbuilding. As in the more western provinces, the instinct for pioneer farming induces many to give up their holdings in order to move westward, and improved farms of 100 to 150 acres, with house and buildings, may be had at from £100 to £500, whilst uncleared Crown lands are offered by the Government at £8 16*s.* per 100 acres, and 1*s.* 10*d.* an acre for any additional quantity.

It is unnecessary to dwell here on the great importance of the Nova Scotia fisheries, as they are dealt with in a previous chapter devoted to this subject. It will be sufficient to say that in 1884 the value of their produce was no less than 8,736,264 dollars, a marked increase on previous years, specially observable in cod, mackerel, herring, salmon, and lobsters.

Mr. Crosskill says:—"Nova Scotia is a sort of sportsman's paradise, as there is excellent hunting, shooting, and fishing in every county. Of wild animals we have bears, foxes, moose, deer (caraboo), otter, mink, sable, musquash, hares, racoons, and squirrels; and of feathered game, woodcock, snipe, plover, partridges, geese, ducks, brant, curlew, &c. Our game laws are simple. They are only made to protect game when out of season. This is necessary in order to preserve it from total destruction. In the proper season all persons are allowed to hunt and shoot *ad libitum*."

There is considerable mineral wealth in Nova Scotia as will be seen by a reference to the chapter on the mineral resources of Canada. Manufacturing industry is also rapidly developing.

Prince Edward Island.

The province of Prince Edward Island, the smallest of the Canadian provinces, has an area of 2,133 square miles, about equal to that of the English county of Norfolk. It lies in the southern part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, between New Brunswick and Cape Breton, from which it is separated by Northumberland Strait, varying from 9 to 36 miles in width.

The island is strong in agricultural resources, the soil consisting of a rich red loam of uniform character, particularly suited to the growth of grasses. The rivers contain deposits of mussel mud, from 10 to 30 feet deep, consisting of oysters, mussels, decayed fish, and sea-weed, and this mud is raised by a dredging-machine worked on the ice in the winter season, and used on the land as a fertiliser, acting promptly and efficiently, and producing large crops of hay.

The land is nearly all cleared, and improved farms can be bought at about 20 dollars (£4) an acre. The conditions are favourable for the keeping of cattle, sheep, and horses, of which there is a considerable export to other parts of Canada and the New England States of America.

The climate is temperate and healthy, and the island has been called "the garden of the Dominion," its salubrity attracting large numbers of visitors in the summer months.

The Cattle Quarantine System.

An account of the agriculture of the Dominion would be incomplete without some mention of the quarantine system, to the rigid enforcement of which the Canadian herds and flocks owe their immunity from disease. The efficiency of this system is greatly due to the energy of the Hon. J. H. Pope, late Minister of Agriculture for the Dominion (now Minister of Railways and Canals), and on this side of the Atlantic the Hon. Sir Charles Tupper, the High Commissioner for Canada, exercises the most watchful care in maintaining at Liverpool, London, and Glasgow, the supervision of cattle passing between this country and the Dominion.

The quarantine system dates from 1875, and was prompted by the desire to preserve Canada from the danger arising from the outbreak of pleuro-pneumonia and foot-and-mouth disease, which in that year proved so disastrous in the mother country. An Act was passed by the Canadian Parliament prohibiting the importation of cattle from Great Britain, and this was so strictly enforced that some thirty thoroughbred cattle imported by Mr. Whitfield, a West India merchant—who hoped that his desire to improve Canadian cattle might induce the authorities to make an exception in his favour—had to be re-shipped to England and sold at a heavy loss. This same gentleman has now upon his model farm at Rougemont upwards of half-a-million dollars' worth of carefully selected live stock.

The quarantine station occupies an admirable site at Point Levis, on the right bank of the St. Lawrence, opposite Quebec, and affords accommodation for 700 head of cattle at a time, with plenty of reserve land for further extension if necessary. The sheds are so constructed that each is surrounded by two or three acres of land, and cattle arriving by one steamship are not allowed to mingle with those arriving by another. Each stall is eight feet wide, allowing four feet for each of its two occupants, and great attention is paid to ventilation and cleanliness. No charge is made to importers for quarantining their cattle, beyond the value of the food consumed. For the first three years the quarantine was limited to eight days, but in 1879 the period was extended to 90 days, at which it has since remained. The buildings and fences (the latter of which are removable) have cost between £4,000 and £5,000, and the station is maintained at an annual cost of about £1,600. It is impossible to overrate the value of this institution, which is so highly appreciated that, of the cattle imported for States west of Ohio, fully 75 per cent. enter America by way of Quebec. The number landed in 1884 included 1,607 head of cattle, 473 sheep, and 26 pigs; total 2,106.

For breeding purposes exclusively, American cattle are allowed to enter Canada, under strict quarantine, at Point Edward and one or two other places.

General Remarks.

It may be added, with respect to the general position of agriculture throughout the Dominion, that there are altogether about 22,000,000 acres of land under cultivation, in addition to about 7,000,000 acres of improved pasture. The average size of Canadian farms, according to Professor Brown, of Guelph, is something under 150 acres. The annual gross value of produce ranges from £3 to £8 12*s.* per acre, the average being £4 12*s.* The average clear profit, after paying for labour, maintenance, interest on capital, &c., is estimated at over 12*s.* per acre. The average farm carries live stock to the value of £1 12*s.* per acre. The annual taxes on land consist of a township rate, a school rate, and a county rate, amounting in all to an average of 5*d.* per acre. Land is being taken up at the rate of 380,000 acres per annum, and reclaimed at the rate of 100,000 acres per annum. Within recent years wheat production has increased at the rate of 70,000 acres per annum.

The yield of corn and other crops would be still greater than it is, were it not for the great destruction caused by insects, estimated by Mr. J. Fletcher, Vice-President of the Entomological Society of Ontario, at one-tenth of the entire produce. He believes that the ravages of the wheat-midge, the Hessian fly, and particularly the clover-seed midge, are all preventible; a judicious selection of seed-corn has done something, and scientific inquiry into the best mode of dealing with these and other pests, such as cut-worms, the larch saw-fly, and cattle parasites, has been encouraged by the appointment of a Dominion Entomologist by the Minister of Agriculture.

It may be added that although the Dominion Government has a Department of Agriculture, with a responsible Minister at its head, its functions extend also to a variety of subjects, including patents, copyrights, trade-marks, the Census, health and other statistics. There has hitherto been a distinct vote for the general purposes of agriculture, although special votes have been granted for cattle quarantine and inspection, the collection of statistics relating to agriculture, and grants to exhibitions. It is stated that the Act of 1868, under which the Department of Agriculture was constituted, would provide for the establishment of a Bureau of Agriculture, and for the appointment of a Commissioner of Agriculture; and a Select Committee has recommended this modification of the present arrangements, the Bureau to be connected with an experimental farm, and both to be placed under the supervision of the existing Department. The United States have had a separate Department of Agriculture (formerly included in the Patent Department) since 1861, and Congress has been liberal in its grants for the purchase and distribution of seeds, experiments in culture, entomological inquiry, the investigation of cattle diseases, reclamation of land, forestry, and other kindred subjects; and the acknowledged usefulness of this Department induces a belief that the Canadian Government will carry out the recommendations of the Committee alluded to.

CHAPTER XVIII.

CANADIAN FORESTS AND THE LUMBER TRADE.

Of all the dependencies of the British Empire none is so rich in arboreal wealth as the Dominion of Canada. In various parts, outside the great prairie region, immense forests exist, whose exported produce amounted in 1885 to 20,989,708 dollars, as has been stated in a preceding chapter on exports and imports. In Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and British Columbia there are great tracts of woodland, and in some parts the entire country, hill and valley alike, was covered with forest until it was partially cleared by the settler for agricultural purposes. At one time this work was pursued with such a reckless disregard of the necessities of the future, that it has been found necessary in later days to replant spots where homesteads had been entirely deprived of the grateful shade and exquisite charm derived from trees. Nothing can surpass the beauty of the forest scenery of Canada, especially in the spring and decline of the year; and, apart from æsthetic considerations, there can be no doubt that the preservation of a fair proportion of woodland is necessary from a climatic and sanitary point of view. This is becoming a generally recognised fact, and efforts are being made, even in the treeless prairie lands of Manitoba, to alter its appearance by planting groves and avenues of trees; whilst the "arbour-days" of Quebec and New Brunswick, devoted to the encouragement of this work, are annually looked forward to as recognised holidays.

The area of the timber lands of the Dominion is estimated at 280,000 square miles, whilst those remaining in the possession of the Government of the United States only occupy 132,000 square miles, a fact which leads to the apprehension that before many years the latter will become exhausted, and that, consequently, there will be a greatly increased demand for Canadian timber, necessitating forethought and conservative action on the part of the Dominion authorities. Indeed, the Canadians are now fully alive to the necessity for legislative restrictions on the reckless method in which the timber of the Dominion has hitherto been wasted; for the preservation of large areas for forest purposes; and for the prevention of forest fires, which have been terribly destructive. The necessity for prompt and decisive action is shown by recent reports on the forests of Canada, made public by the British Government last year, in the form of a Parliamentary Blue-book. From these it appears that Prince Edward Island has been practically denuded of timber, having now no forests of any extent. In Nova Scotia all, or nearly all, the timber lands will soon have been cut over for the first time, forest fires have cleared large areas, the supply of spruce and pine is approaching exhaustion, and the lumber-trade is on the decline. In Ontario there are 18,000 square miles of land known as timber limits, in which lumber-men have purchased the right to cut lumber for a certain period, renewable yearly, such lumber, when cut, being subject to the payment of certain Crown dues;* but there are also 20,000

* Homestead settlers, whose land is destitute of timber, may, on payment of a fee of 50 cents, obtain a permit to cut a certain quantity of timber free of dues.

square miles in the hands of the Government, on which no licence has yet been granted.

The Laurentian highlands, north of the St. Lawrence, have an area of 178,000 square miles, the greater portion of which is covered with forest, and in the Upper Ottawa territory there is a similar tract extending over 30,000 square miles. In British Columbia the southern and western portions are covered with dense forests, and there are large areas of excellent timber on the east, but to the north there is less timber, and there is but little in the interior of the province.

Dr. Robert Bell, whose knowledge of the Canadian forests extends over a quarter of a century, arranges the trees found east of the Rocky Mountains in four geographical divisions:—1. A northern group, including the white and black spruces, larch, Banksean pine, balsam fir, aspen, balsam poplar, canoe birch, willows, and alder. These cover the vast territory down to the line of the white pine. 2. A central group of about forty species, occupying the belt of country from the white pine line to that of the button-wood. 3. A southern group, embracing the button-wood, black walnut, the hickories, chestnut, tulip-tree, prickly ash, sour gum, sassafras, and flowering dog-wood, which are found only in a small area in the southern part of Ontario. 4. A western group, consisting of the ash-leaved maple, bur oak, cotton wood, and green ash, which are scattered sparingly over the prairie and wooded regions west of Red River and Lake Winnipeg.

Mr. A. T. Drummond, who has made a special study of Canadian forestry, says:—"Canada may be divided into four great forest areas or zones, which may for convenience be termed the zones of the (1) Douglas fir, occupying central and southern British Columbia; (2) poplars, covering the whole country from the most northern limit of the growth of trees southward, east of the Rocky Mountains, to the South Saskatchewan, Qu'Appelle and Winnipeg Rivers, Lake Nepigon, and Anticosti, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence; (3) white and red pine, extending from the Lake of the Woods and Lake Nepigon to Anticosti, thence to the Georgian Bay, Lower Ottawa River, and Nova Scotia; (4) beech and maple, occupying those parts of Ontario and Quebec lying south of the zone of the pines. Along the shores of Lake Erie is what might almost be regarded as a fifth zone, very circumscribed in area, but having within it several outlyers of the forests of the Middle States."

Professor Asa Gray, in a paper on the 'Characteristics of the North American Flora,' thus compares the forest trees of Canada with those of the mother country:—"The Coniferæ native to the British Islands are but one pine, one juniper, and a yew; those of Canada proper are four or five pines, four firs, a larch, an arbor-vitæ, three junipers, and a yew; fourteen or fifteen to three. Of Amentaceous trees and shrubs, Great Britain counts one oak (in two marked forms), a beech, a hazel, a hornbeam, two birches, an alder, a myrica, eighteen willows, and two poplars—twenty-eight species in nine genera, and under four natural orders. In Canada there are at least eight oaks, a chestnut, a beech, two hazels, two hornbeams of distinct genera, six birches, two alders, about fourteen willows, and five poplars, also a plane tree, two walnuts, and four hickories; say forty-eight species, in thirteen genera, and belonging to seven natural orders."

Professor Fream, who quotes the above authorities, adds:—"Of the 340 species of forest trees of North America, only 95 are to be found in Canada, and of these only three are identical with the European species, namely, the chestnut, white birch, and yew. With regard to the future supplies of timber which may be available in Canada, Dr. Bell finds that the greater part of the white oak and rock elm have been already exported, while the cherry, black walnut, red cedar, and hickory, have likewise been practically exhausted. Red oak, bass wood, white ash, red cedar, hemlock, butternut, and hard maple, as well as many inferior woods, are still to be found in sufficient quantity for home consumption. A considerable supply of yellow birch still exists, and in some regions it is as yet almost untouched. The white pine, the great Canadian timber tree, has a more limited range than is generally supposed, and the principal reserves are in the region around Lake Temiscaming, and thence westward to the eastern shores of Lake Superior. When the exportable white and red pine have become exhausted, as must happen before many years, there are still vast quantities of spruce and larch, which may even now be regarded as the principal timber available for this purpose in the future. Tremendous havoc has been wrought by forest fires, and it is estimated that the quantity of red and white pine destroyed in this way in the Ottawa Valley and in the St. Maurice and Georgian Bay regions is many times greater than all that has been felled by the axe. Yet even this is insignificant compared with the quantity of pine, spruce, cedar, larch, balsam, and other trees which have been destroyed by fire in the more northern latitudes all the way from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the Nelson River, and thence north-westward. The northern coniferous forests are more liable than others to be destroyed by fire. In the summer season, when the gummy tops of the trees and the mossy ground are alike dry, they burn with almost explosive rapidity. Small trees are thickly mingled with the larger ones, so that their branches touch each other, and thus form a sufficiently dense fuel to support a continuous sheet of flame on a grand scale. Before a high wind the fire sweeps on with a roaring noise, and at a rate which prevents the birds and beasts from escaping. After a time, shrubs and bushes spring up on the burnt area, then aspens and white birches, among which the cone-bearing trees begin to appear, and after a century and a half or more these will have regained possession. This alternation of crops of timber appears to have been going on for many centuries, but in modern times the fires have been more numerous than formerly. Occasionally due to lightning, these fires are mostly traceable to the carelessness of white men and demoralised Indians. The fires are not so liable to run in forests of full-grown white and red pines, and hard wood forests are seldom burnt to any great extent. In several localities I noticed the weird sight presented by the charred and branchless trunks as they were left, dead and silent, after the fury of the fire had swept over them."

The supplies necessary to industries dependent on wood—which employ about 100,000 hands, with an annual product of manufactured goods amounting to nearly 100,000,000 dollars—and other timber used within the Dominion absorb about two-fifths of the whole, and as the rough products exported in 1884 were of the value of upwards of 25,000,000 dollars, this would bring the total annual value of the timber to upwards of 40,000,000 dollars. The amount of capital invested in timber lands, saw-

mills, &c., is estimated at 35,000,000 dollars, and the working capital at 20,000,000 dollars.

The Census of 1881 enumerated thirty-four industries, including a total of 17,577 establishments, and employing 95,741 hands, dependent mainly on timber for their raw material, and an immense amount is used in the construction of railway lines. The saw-mills are many of them on a very extensive scale, and Mr. Anderson, one of the tenant farmers' delegates who visited Canada in 1880, visited one near Ottawa which had cut upwards of 40,000,000 feet of lumber during the three months of its winter operations. Some of the timber is of enormous size; the Marquis of Lorne, in a speech delivered at Victoria, mentioned a log which he had seen, measuring 40 inches square and from 90 to 100 feet in length.

The following shows the value of the export of forest products from the several provinces of Canada for the years 1884–5:—

	$
Ontario	7,371,028
Quebec	8,798,094
Nova Scotia	1,274,653
New Brunswick	3,269,381
British Columbia	262,071
Prince Edward Island	14,459
Manitoba	22
Total	20,989,708

The lumber trade is one which in some of its stages calls for the exercise of much judgment, promptitude, and daring. From an able and interesting treatise on 'Canadian Forests,' by Mr. H. B. Small, we learn that the lumberers are a race of men peculiar to Canada, Maine, and the Far West. The work of felling the timber, preparatory to converting it into square timber or saw logs, is carried on in the depth of winter, and an ordinary shanty crew of two gangs, sufficient to get out a raft of 80,000 feet of timber, would consist of a foreman, two hewers, two "liners" (who make a return to the foreman of the quantity cut), four scorers, four road cutters, one cook, a teamster, and a "crutchman." The shanty is a rude log cabin, with sleeping bunks raised around it in tiers, and a huge fire of logs in the centre, the smoke from which escapes from a hole in the roof. The provisions are usually taken up in the autumn, as the timber districts are inaccessible to waggons. The foreman selects the timber, and when a tree is felled the "stick" is chained to a sleigh roughly made of the crutch of a birch tree, on which it is drawn by horses to the rollway, a cleared space sixty feet square or thereabouts, and there laid transversely across a tree from which the bark on the upper side has been removed in order that the "sticks" may slide easily over it until they are nearly balanced, to facilitate their removal. In the middle of December stables and granaries are built for the expected teams, which are generally sent off to the forest at the beginning of January, and by these the timber is removed to the river bank, sometimes not more than a mile distant, sometimes eight miles or more, to await the break-up of the frost. If saw logs are cut, instead of square timber, they are hauled over cliffs and down ravines to the water's edge. "When the ice-bound streams are free in spring the arduous and dangerous work begins, for then a new feature of lumbering comes into operation. Loosely joined together in rough rafts, the logs are set adrift

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in the rivers, swollen fiercely with waters from the melting snow. In New Brunswick some of these rafts of logs cover a space of ten acres, and, if by accident the raft breaks up on a rapid, the logs may get wedged and bound together on a ledge or shallow, stopping all the miles of logs following, and causing a 'jam.' The obstructing logs which cause this must be cut away or extricated. Only the bravest, coolest, and most experienced of the lumberers can attempt the cutting out of a log, the most dangerous of all their tasks, for when once the log which bars the passage is half cut through, the might of the press behind breaks them like straws, and some 10,000 logs come plunging down with a rush and confusion, requiring all the activity a man possesses to escape the avalanche. Chopping away a jam is only resorted to when other measures fail. The more simple way of removing the obstacle is as follows: The men are brought to the vicinity of the jam on the shore, and the foreman or man in charge of the drive, with some half-dozen of the most active and experienced, go out to this jam in a boat and examine it, and conclude among themselves the most suitable place to commence at clearing the river. If handled with judgment a few hours will sometimes start the whole, whereas, on the other hand, days may elapse before it is all away. The plan is to use what is termed a jam-dog, to which is attached a strong rope. The man on the jam catches the dog in the stick he wishes moved, and all hands on shore pull on the rope, and draw the stick into the stream. When the key stick of the jam starts, then it becomes dangerous. The men on the jam start for the boat before the timber forming the jam gets well rolling and make for shore, and it is necessary then that they have cool presence of mind and good use of their legs, as one false step till they reach the boat would be almost certain death. The jam off, the driving in boats continues until the next rapid is reached, and a repetition of the same plan is followed. In driving timber through a lake where a good current exists in the middle of the stream, the timber that may have worked or been blown into the numerous bays with which they generally abound, is towed out to the current by the boats' crews and allowed to drift down; but where the current is too sluggish, kedging is adopted to cross the lake and reach the swift water. Where slides for single pieces of timber exist, the timber is retained at the head of the slide by a boom placed for that purpose, so that, when all the timber has arrived in it, they open the gap and commence feeding through the slide, piece by piece, as fast as the nature of the slide will admit of."

CHAPTER XIX.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

THE mineral wealth revealed by the investigation of the Government Geological Survey shows that Nature has been as bountiful to Canada in this department as in others already reviewed; its development only awaits the influx of population and of the capital so necessary to mining on an extensive and profitable scale. Already the yield is sufficient to allow a considerable margin for exportation to other countries, the total value of such exports in 1885 being 3,639,537 dollars. They included gold-bearing quartz, dust, and nuggets, amounting to 999,007 dollars; 31 tons of silver

ore, 1,257 tons of copper, 54,367 tons of iron, 479,706 tons of coal, 116,415 tons of gypsum, 18,984 tons of phosphate of lime, 748 tons of manganese, and 954,966 gallons of mineral oil.

In a pamphlet entitled 'The Mineral Resources of the Dominion of Canada,' published at Ottawa in 1882, the writer observes that the Atlantic coast includes a large area of the oldest known formation, the Laurentian, which contains nearly all the known minerals; whilst the Pacific coast, over an area of several hundred thousand square miles, is composed of rocks similar to those of Colorado and Nevada—the bonanza-bearing rocks; and the district between the great lakes, while apparently without the precious metals, furnishes no small amount of other minerals, of which also the prairie regions contribute their share. The chief minerals of economic importance existing in Canada are thus classified in the same treatise:—

"*Metals and their Ores.*—Under this head are the following: Iron, which exists as bog ore, hematite, magnetic and specular ore and magnetic iron sand; lead; copper, sulphurets and native; nickel and cobalt, zinc, silver, gold, platinum.

"*Minerals applicable to Chemical Manufactures.*—Iron ores and chromic iron, sulphate of barytes, molybdenite, cobaltiferous and arsenical pyrites, bismuth, antimony, manganese, dolomite, magnesite, phosphate of lime and calcareous tufa. Of the above, iron ores and sulphates of barytes, chromic iron, bismuth and others are used as pigments and in the manufacture of paints; molybdenite and manganese for bleaching and decolorizing; pyrites for the manufacture of copperas, sulphur, and sulphuric acid; dolomite and magnesite for medicinal purposes; phosphate of lime and calcareous tufa for artificial manures.

"*Minerals applicable to Construction.*—Under this head are limestones and sandstones for building purposes; the former are also used to prepare lime and hydraulic cement; gneiss; syenite and granite for paving purposes; marbles, found in great variety, white, black, red, veined, dark and light green, brown, grey, mottled, &c., for pillars, mantel-pieces, and decorative purposes and sculpture; slates for roofing; flagstones; clays, various colours, for bricks and tiles.

"*Minerals for Grinding and Polishing.*—Whetstones, hones, grindstones, millstones, and emery powder.

"*Minerals applicable for Refraction.*—Asbestos, or amianthus; mica; soapstone, or stearite; plumbago, or graphite; and clay for fire bricks.

"*Minerals applicable to Fine Arts.*—Lithographic stones, agates, jaspers, crystals, amethysts.

"*Miscellaneous Minerals.*—Coal, lignite, rock salt, petroleum or rock oil, feldspar, bituminous shale."

According to a Guide-book published by the Government of Canada, gold mines have been worked in Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Ontario, and largely in British Columbia, where there are yet immense fields to open up. Silver mines have been worked in Ontario; and that at Silver Islet, Thunder Bay, is the richest which has yet been discovered on the continent. Iron ore is found all over the Dominion, and many mines have been successfully worked. Some of the Canadian iron ores are among the most valuable in the world. Copper has been mined to a considerable extent, both in Quebec and Ontario; and the deposits of the ore are of great extent.

There are very large coal deposits in Nova Scotia, and many mines are

profitably worked. This coal is sent up by the River St. Lawrence and by rail into the interior. The coast of British Columbia is very rich in coal of a quality which commands a preference in the markets of San Francisco, notwithstanding the United States coal duty. Coal is also known to exist over a vast region stretching from 150 to 200 miles east of the Rocky Mountains, and north from the frontier for about 1,000 miles. In places where the seams have been examined, they are found to be of great thickness and of excellent quality. Beds of true bituminous coal have been found, and lignite occurs in considerable quantity along the valley of the Souris River, near the frontier, not very far west of Winnipeg. The coal under the Rocky Mountains may be floated down both branches of the Saskatchewan to Winnipeg; and the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway will open another outlet to the prairies. These coal beds have also been found cropping out on the banks of the Saskatchewan, near to the line of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

Specially among the minerals which are used for agricultural purposes, may be mentioned apatite or phosphate of lime, the increasing demand for which has led to a great increase in production, both for home use and exportation. The percentage of purity of native Canadian phosphate ranges from 70 to 95 per cent., and it commands a price of 25 dollars 50 cents (about £5 2*s.*) per ton in Liverpool. It is found in large and easily workable beds throughout a large extent of country in the Ottawa Valley.

Petroleum is known to exist in several parts of the Dominion, but the wells have been profitably worked in Ontario alone. Very extensive beds of petroleum-bearing rocks have been found in the North-West, and a railway is projected to connect them with the Canadian Pacific. In 1884 the yield of petroleum was 15½ million gallons.

Salt is found in Ontario; and at Goderich there are extensive salt works.

The building stones of the Dominion are valuable. Marble is found, taking a brilliant polish. Limestone, sandstone and granite may be mentioned among the chief varieties worked.

Land plaster is found in great abundance in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Ontario. It occurs also in Manitoba and the Territories. It may be procured at a cheap rate in any of the older provinces as a fertiliser.

Peat is found in large deposits in all the provinces, and is very valuable for fuel.

CHAPTER XX.

EDUCATION.—RELIGION.

As the welfare of a country is largely dependent on the education of its people, it is satisfactory to find that this has not been neglected in Canada, where the road to the highest culture is open and easy to all who combine ability with application, first in the primary schools, next in the grammar schools, and, finally, in the colleges and universities.

We have already seen that one object of early French colonisation,

pursued with much devotion and zeal, was the conversion of the Indians to the Christian faith. With instruction in religious matters was combined instruction in secular matters, and various educational institutions were established in the province of Quebec during the latter part of the 17th century and in the 18th century, but even as late as 1824 a report stated that "not above one-fourth of the entire population could read, and not above one-tenth of them could write, even imperfectly." Consequently, in that year an Act called the "Fabrique Act" was passed, providing for the establishment by the curé and churchwardens of each parish, of a school for every hundred families, and this formed the basis of the present school system of the province, which is placed under the control of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, assisted by a Council of 25 members, which is divided into two Committees for the government of the Roman Catholic and Protestant schools respectively. Primary education is partly maintained by compulsory taxation, and partly by an equivalent grant from the Government to each municipality. Besides this, heads of families contribute a small monthly fee for every child capable of attending school. Quebec has nearly 4,000 primary schools, with 200,000 pupils: nearly 300 secondary and model schools, with 40,000 pupils; and 3 normal schools, supported by the State, for the training of teachers. There are also schools of agriculture, commercial schools, classical schools, and three universities, two of which are Protestant—McGill College, Montreal, founded in 1811, under the will of the Hon. Peter McGill; and Bishops' College, Lennoxville, founded by Bishop Mountain in 1843. The third, Laval University, Quebec, is a Roman Catholic institution, and was founded in 1854.

In the province of Ontario, also, education was not lost sight of by the early settlers, and towards the close of the 18th century garrison and other schools were set on foot at various places; it was also proposed to establish a university, but this premature scheme was for a time abandoned. In 1816 an Act of the Provincial Legislature provided public schools, and £6,000 per annum was voted in aid of their support—a scheme which received expansion eight or ten years later; and in 1839 the Government granted 250,000 acres of land for the endowment of grammar schools, and offered a bonus of 800 dollars to counties which would provide a like amount for the erection of one. The present school system of Ontario is mainly due to the efforts of the Rev. Egerton Ryerson, to whom in 1844 the duty of reorganisation was entrusted, and who, after a tour of investigation in Europe and the United States, prepared a draft bill, which in 1846 was adopted by the Legislature. This measure has since undergone amendment from time to time, and the school system of Ontario is now very efficient, providing for compulsory attendance, local assessment, Government aid, inspection, &c. The public schools are non-sectarian, but provision is made for the establishment of separate schools by the Roman Catholics. The school funds are derived from the sale of lands, from municipal rates, each municipality raising an amount equivalent to the legislative grant, and from other sources; and the schools are governed by trustees elected by the ratepayers. There are also normal schools at Toronto and Ottawa, and at the head of the institutions devoted to higher education are the University of Victoria College, Coburg, and the University of King's College, Toronto. There are also various denominational institutions of importance, such as Knox College, Toronto, under the control of

the Presbyterian Church of Canada; Regiopolis College, Kingston, St. Joseph's College, Ottawa, and St. Michael's College, Toronto, all Roman Catholic; and others under the direction of the Church of England, the Baptists, Episcopal Methodists, &c.

In Nova Scotia elementary education was until the last five-and-twenty years left to local effort, and although this was encouraged by legislative grants, as in Ontario, not much was done until 1864, when the present system was organised. Although education is not made compulsory, free schools, maintained partly by provincial grants and partly by compulsory rates, are provided by the Government, with efficient teachers, for whose training a normal school has been established. There are nearly 1,600 public schools within the province, with nearly 100,000 pupils in daily attendance. This province possesses also no fewer than six sectarian universities, including that at Sackville, belonging jointly to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The others are King's College, Windsor, founded in 1788, the oldest Protestant college in the Dominion; the University of Halifax, whose functions are similar to those of the London University, and do not extend to teaching; Dalhousie College, Halifax; and two Roman Catholic colleges at Halifax and Antigonish.

In New Brunswick also education is provided for by provincial rates and legislative grants, and the system includes primary schools, grammar schools, and high schools. There are, besides, a normal school for teachers, and the University of New Brunswick, at Fredericton, founded in 1828, and formerly known as King's College. Also Sackville College, already alluded to, and a Presbyterian college at Woodstock.

In Prince Edward Island thirty acres of land were reserved in each township for a schoolmaster at the first distribution of lands by lottery in 1767. Free schools were established in 1852, and since the confederation of the Dominion much advance has been made in education, which is non-sectarian. A school for higher education was established at Charlottetown in 1836, a normal school in 1856, and the Prince of Wales College in 1861, as a memorial of the visit of His Royal Highness in the previous year.

In Manitoba, the North-West Territories, and British Columbia, education keeps pace with colonisation. In Manitoba a provincial University was established in 1877, on the model of Halifax University, by the union of the Roman Catholic, Anglican, and Presbyterian Colleges; and in British Columbia the school system, organised in 1872, is similar to that of Ontario, the Legislature generally voting 40,000 dollars a year for the erection of schools and other educational purposes.

Religious Belief.

On this point it will be sufficient to state that there is the utmost liberty of conscience throughout the Dominion. The following statistics relating to the several provinces are derived from the census of 1881 :—

Provinces.	Roman Catholics.	Church of England.	Presbyterians.	Methodists.	Baptists.	Other denominations.
Prince Edward Island .	47,115	7,192	33,835	13,485	6,236	632
Nova Scotia	197,487	60,255	112,488	50,811	83,761	11,092
New Brunswick . . .	109,091	46,768	42,888	34,514	81,092	3,286
Quebec	1,170,718	68,797	50,287	39,221	8,853	6,800
Ontario	320,839	366,539	417,749	591,503	106,680	72,048
Manitoba	12,246	14,297	14,292	9,470	9,449	1,445
British Columbia . . .	10,043	7,804	4,095	3,516	434	769
The Territories . . .	4,443	3,166	531	461	20	5
Totals . . .	1,791,982	574,818	676,165	742,981	296,525	96,077

The "other denominations" included 26,900 Congregationalists, 20,193 Disciples, 46,350 Lutherans, and 2,634 of no religious profession.

CHAPTER XXI.

CLIMATE—PUBLIC HEALTH.

OWING to ignorance and misrepresentation, and their natural offspring, prejudice, the climate of Canada has been unjustly maligned. There is undoubtedly no escape from the data recorded by the thermometer, nor have we any intention or desire to underrate the severity of the Canadian winter; but at the same time ameliorating conditions of the highest importance must not be overlooked. The climate of a country extending over 30 or 40 degrees of latitude must necessarily be very varied, but in the vast district already settled or in process of settlement this range is generally reduced to about 20 degrees of latitude, commencing at the international boundary on the 49th parallel; the provinces of Ontario, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, and great part of the province of Quebec, lie farther to the south, touching lat. 42°. It has already been shown that isothermal divergence marks a much higher temperature for Canada than is found in corresponding latitudes in other portions of the globe, and that owing to the dryness of the atmosphere neither the heat nor the cold is so acutely felt as the mere temperature would lead one to expect. Professor Wilson, in his article on Canada, contributed to the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' thus describes the climate, speaking more especially of the eastern portion of the Dominion :—"The degrees of latitude are a very

partial guide to the character of the Canadian climate, as compared with that of the British Isles; and any statement of the mean temperatures of the two is deceptive. The severity of the winter, as tested by the thermometer, leads to a very exaggerated impression of Canadian experiences. Owing to the dry, clear, bracing atmosphere which generally prevails, the sense of discomfort produced by the raw easterly winds and damp fogs of an English spring suggests an idea of cold, such as is rarely thought of in a Canadian winter. There are indeed, every winter, a few days of intense cold, as in the summer there are brief periods of equally intense heat, when the thermometer ascends, or descends, through a scale unknown in the more equable English climate. But throughout the greater part of the winter season in Canada the sky is bright and clear, and the weather thoroughly enjoyable. Open sleighs are in use by all. Sleighing parties of pleasure are arranged for the period of full moon, that they may return home over the snow, after an evening's enjoyment at some appointed rendezvous; skating, snowshoeing, and other outdoor exercises are in universal favour; and the sound of the sleigh-bells in the open thoroughfares adds to the exhilarating sense produced by the pure bracing atmosphere. Snow accordingly brings with it no such ideas of discomfort as are associated with it in England; while by the farmer it is hailed as altogether beneficial. In the province of Quebec the snow begins to lie early in November; in Ontario it is fully a month later; and it differs correspondingly at various localities throughout the Dominion. But everywhere the snow is hailed as seasonable and beneficial. It protects the wheat sown in autumn from the frost, affords facilities to the farmer for bringing his produce to market, aids the lumberer in collecting the fruits of his labour in the forest at suitable points for transport by water with the spring freshets, and so contributes alike to business and pleasure. . . . January and February are the coldest months of the year. Throughout the whole of Canada steady sleighing is reckoned upon during those months. In Quebec and Manitoba a longer period of sleighing can be relied upon. In Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, and also on the Pacific coasts, the temperature is modified both in summer and winter according to vicinity to the sea. Abrupt changes of temperature occur both in summer and in winter. A period of great cold early in the month of January is so frequently followed by a complete change, that its periodicity is reckoned upon under the name of the January thaw. Snow finally disappears in Quebec about the middle of April. In Ontario it is generally gone a month earlier."

In previous chapters, relating to the agriculture of Canada, the reader will find a record of many matters connected with the productions of the soil, by which he will be led to more accurate conclusions as to the climatic conditions on which their growth is dependent than can be derived from meteorological statistics. It is, however, necessary to this account of the Dominion and its resources that such statistics should also appear, and we therefore append the following tables, taken from the Report of the Meteorological Service of the Dominion for the year 1882 :—

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS AT TORONTO, ONTARIO, 1882.

	Temperature.			Barom. Mean.	Rainfall.	Snowfall.
	Mean.	Max.	Min.			
	Degrees.	Degrees.	Degrees.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
January	23·1	40·1	—17·4	30·11	1·23	7·8
February	30·3	50·3	9·6	30·08	1·18	5·4
March	31·7	56·2	14·4	30·08	1·55	5·7
April	39·9	65·0	21·9	30·03	1·01	0·2
May	48·9	70·9	30·0	30·02	3·58	—
June	61·6	85·4	37·0	29·87	2·63	—
July	66·8	89·9	51·3	29.98	1.07	—
August	67·3	86·9	46·8	30·00	2·52	—
September	61·2	88·3	43·1	30·09	2·09	—
October	51·8	74·3	28·0	30·08	1·15	—
November	35·8	64·2	7·2	30·16	1·39	7·6
December	26·1	40·1	4·1	30·06	1·21	15·8

The mean temperature for the entire year was 45·4°; the mean barometrical reading, 30·05 inches; the total rainfall, 20·59 inches; the total snowfall, 42·5 inches.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS AT MONTREAL, QUEBEC, 1882.

	Temperature.			Barom. Mean.	Rainfall.	Snowfall.
	Mean.	Max.	Min.			
	Degrees.	Degrees.	Degrees.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
January	12·2	42·4	—26·0	30·11	1·18	28·2
February	21·0	46·2	—8·5	30·09	0·58	23·2
March	25·0	47·0	1·4	30·05	2·46	15·3
April	35·5	57·2	13·1	29·97	1·58	3·2
May	49·6	67·5	27·1	29·99	1·50	0·5
June	62·7	86·7	43·9	29·80	4·74	—
July	67·6	84·9	50·8	29·90	6·04	—
August	68·3	91·0	48·0	29·96	2·52	—
September	58·2	79·1	40·6	30·06	3·63	—
October	49·4	74·7	30·5	30·06	1·34	—
November	31·3	60·6	14·3	30·11	1·39	1·0
December	17·6	57·1	—5·3	30·03	0·04	39·8

The mean temperature for the entire year was 41·58°; the mean barometrical reading, 30·01 inches; the total rainfall, 27 inches; the total snowfall, 111·02 inches.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS AT ST. JOHN, NEW BRUNSWICK, 1882.

	Temperature.			Barom. Mean.	Rainfall.	Snowfall.
	Mean.	Max.	Min.			
	Degrees.	Degrees.	Degrees.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
January	18·1	41·0	—11·0	29·96	1·02	35·0
February	21·0	41·0	—6·0	30·04	2·47	50·0
March	27·5	45·0	—8·0	29·98	3·83	23·2
April	32·9	49·0	6·0	29·91	1·54	24·6
May	44·1	60·0	27·0	29·97	3·14	2·5
June	55·7	79·0	41·0	29·80	6·66	—
July	59·0	74·0	44·0	29.95	4·64	—
August	59·3	82·0	44·0	29.97	1·89	—
September	55·3	74·0	37·0	30·01	4·59	—
October	47·8	63·0	31·0	30·05	3·34	—
November.	33·8	62·0	18·0	30·03	1·19	11·0
December.	23·3	48·0	5·0	29·95	1·39	12·4

The mean temperature for the entire year was 39·78°; the mean barometrical reading, 29·97 inches; the total rainfall, 35·70 inches; the total snowfall, 158·7 inches.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS AT HALIFAX, NOVA SCOTIA, 1882.

	Temperature.			Barom. Mean.	Rainfall.	Snowfall.
	Mean.	Max.	Min.			
	Degrees.	Degrees.	Degrees.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
January	21·5	47·6	—8·0	29·97	3·16	36·8
February	22·6	42·9	—2·9	29·97	1·67	42·3
March	28·0	44·3	9·0	29·99	5·46	15·9
April	33·3	55·8	13·2	29·92	3·68	11·2
May	44·2	69·4	28·1	29·99	4·66	—
June	56·9	78.6	39·0	29·84	5·51	—
July	64·1	86·7	47·6	29·98	5·18	—
August	64·4	90·2	44·6	29·99	3·93	—
September	58·4	80·3	40·4	30·06	5·92	—
October	49·7	70·8	30·0	30·06	7·52	—
November.	36·8	63·8	25·8	30·01	0·81	5·6
December.	27·2	50·0	11·0	29·93	1·31	21·4

The mean temperature for the entire year was 42·3°; the mean barometrical reading, 29·99 inches; the total rainfall, 48·81 inches; the total snowfall, 133·7 inches.

Meteorological Observations in Manitoba and the North-West.

The following are the general averages deduced from meteorological observations taken at Winnipeg, Manitoba, and extending over a period of eleven years (1871–1881) :—

Mean height of barometer	29·15 inches.
Mean temperature	33·06 degrees.
Maximum temperature	95·34 degrees.
Minimum temperature	—40·51 degrees.
Rainfall	16·97 inches.
Snowfall	52·72 inches.
Total rain and melted snow	23·30 inches.
Number of days on which rain fell	69
Number of days on which snow fell	45
Number of fogs	9
Number of thunderstorms	27
Navigation opened on Red river	April 20th.
Navigation closed on Red river	Nov. 13th.

The following figures, taken by Professor Fream from official returns, show the temperature at Edmonton, in the district of Alberta, and at Humboldt, in the district of Saskatchewan, in 1882 :—

	Temperature at Edmonton.			Temp. at Humboldt.
	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Mean.	Mean.
	Degrees.	Degrees.	Degrees.	Degrees.
January	17·7	—4·2	6·7	—2·5
February	25·1	—3·6	10·7	6·9
March	24·5	1·0	12·8	7·9
April	—	—	—	28·9
May	62·4	37·0	49·7	46·8
June	69·3	47·0	58·2	56·4
July	72·0	49·5	60·7	60·6
August	73·3	48·3	60·8	63·1
September	62·2	35·7	48·9	49·2
October	42·1	27·4	34·7	34·4
November	30·4	10·2	20·3	16·9
December	19·0	—2·0	8·5	5·0

The highest temperature recorded at Edmonton was 87°, on August 8, 9, and 10. The lowest was 52°, on February 16. The thermometer did not fall to freezing-point between May 22 and September 16, and between May 25 and September 5 it did not fall below 40°, except on June 21, when it reached 39°.

Public Health.

It is admitted on all hands that the climate of Canada is in a marked degree healthy and invigorating. On this point, therefore, it will be sufficient to cite the mortuary statistics appended to the report of the Minister of Agriculture for 1884. The following table shows the assumed population of the principal cities, the total number of deaths in that year, and the ratio

per 1,000 of the population, together with the ratios per 1,000 deaths for various periods of life, omitting only 26 deaths at unrecorded ages:—

Cities.	Assumed Population.	Total Deaths.	Ratio per 1,000 of population.	Ratios per 1,000 Deaths.				
				First 5 years of age.	From 5 to 20 years.	From 20 to 40 years	From 40 to 60 years.	Above 60 years.
Montreal . .	151,946	5,022	33·05	615·8	79·2	104·7	89·8	110·1
Toronto . . .	97,596	1,982	20·30	446·5	89·8	171·5	119·5	168·0
Quebec . . .	63,294	1,686	26·63	532·0	72·9	101·4	100·2	189·2
Hamilton . .	39,098	769	19·66	343·3	92·3	215·8	167·7	178·1
Halifax . . .	38,181	799	20·92	364·2	112·6	160·2	157·6	204·0
Ottawa . . .	29,334	678	23·11	573·7	61·9	123·8	95·8	141·5
St. John, N.B. .	27,630	616	22·29	301·9	129·8	201·2	149·3	217·5
Winnipeg . .	22,563	469	20·78	434·9	185·5	255·8	83·1	34·1
Charlottetown .	12,376	145	11·71	213·7	110·3	220·6	158·6	289·6
Fredericton . .	6,279	124	19·74	314·5	129·0	145·1	137·0	274·1

In England and Wales, according to the last Annual Report of the Registrar-General, the death-rate in 1883 was at the rate of 19·5 per thousand persons living; with one exception (18·9 per thousand in 1881), this was the lowest death-rate yet recorded.

CHAPTER XXII.

IMMIGRATION.

In consequence of the close juxtaposition of Canada and the United States, many thousands of emigrants proceeding to the latter enter America by Canadian ports, and *vice versâ*. But the table appended to the report of the Minister of Agriculture discriminates between immigrants destined for the United States and those who intend to become settlers in Canada, and of this latter class 47,991 reached the Dominion in 1881, 112,458 in 1882, 133,624 in 1883, and 103,824 in 1884. The decrease in emigration in the latter year was common to other countries as well as Canada.

Of 31,529 immigrants who arrived at the port of Quebec in 1884, 18,638 were English, 4,473 Irish, 3,040 Scotch, 3,451 Scandinavians, 1,237 Germans, 322 Russians, 150 French and Belgians, 95 Austrians, 50 Roumanians, 38 Icelanders, and 35 of other origins.

The trades and occupations of 13,792 steerage adults, who landed at Quebec in the same year, were as follows:—Farmers, 2,669; labourers, 9,194; mechanics, 1,911; clerks and traders, 18.

The number of immigrants, chiefly children, brought to Canada in the same year under the auspices of charitable societies and individuals, was 2,011.

The time occupied on the voyage from Liverpool, in steam vessels, was 10 or 11 days; from London, 14 or 15 days; from Ireland, 9 or 10 days.

For further particulars respecting assisted passages and on all other subjects, intending emigrants are referred to the High Commissioner for the Dominion of Canada, 9, Victoria Chambers, London, S.W., or to the various Canadian Government Agencies at Liverpool, Glasgow, Belfast, Dublin, and Bristol.

CHAPTER XXIII.

CONCLUSION.

THE Marquis of Lorne, in a speech delivered at Glasgow, after his period of office as Governor-General of Canada had terminated, said: "If you look at the public works of the people—small in number, for even now they are only 5,000,000 strong—right up from the sea to the great interior of the country, it is perfectly marvellous what has been accomplished." That his Lordship had abundant justification for the admiration which he is never slow to express is sufficiently shown in the foregoing pages; and it would be well if Englishmen generally could see with their own eyes—as His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales did in 1860, as his brother the Duke of Connaught did in 1869, and as the Princess Louise and the Marquis of Lorne have done at a later period—the vastness, the beauty, and the capabilities of this great dependency; for nothing more would be needed to arouse their interest and excite their enthusiasm. It has been seen that the gradual expansion of a few small and struggling settlements into the great confederation which now forms the Dominion of Canada has been accomplished in spite of innumerable dangers, hardships, and obstacles, overcome by the most dauntless courage and persistency, with too little encouragement and assistance from the mother country from which the dominant race has sprung. But now that the constitution of British America has undergone a great and all-important change; now that the disconnected provinces of old Canada have been welded into one mighty Dominion, with united aims and interests; now that there is a fast increasing appreciation of its importance as an integral portion of the British Empire, and of the more general importance of colonial consolidation, by means of which our distant dependencies, while preserving internal freedom of action, may be bound to each other and to the British Isles by other ties than those of blood and kindred, which have withstood so many shocks, there is practically no limit to the possibilities of the future.

The Earl of Dufferin, who in 1874 made an extensive tour in the Dominion, bears the following testimony to the contentment and loyalty of the people:—"Everywhere I have learnt that the people are satisfied—satisfied with their own individual prospects, and with the prospects of their country; satisfied with their Government, and the institutions under which they prosper; satisfied to be the subjects of the Queen; satisfied to be members of the British Empire. . . . The legislation of the Parliament of Canada, the attitude of its statesmen, the language of its press, sufficiently show how firmly and intelligently its people are prepared to accept and apply the almost unlimited legislative faculties with which it has been endowed; while the daily growing disposition to extinguish sectional

jealousies, and to ignore an obsolete provincialism, proves how strongly the young heart of the confederated commonwealth has begun to throb with the consciousness of its national existence. . . . Never was Canada more united than at present in sympathy of purpose and unity of interest with the mother country, more at one with her in social habits and tone of thought, more proud of her claim to share in the heritage of England's past, more ready to accept whatever obligations may be imposed upon her by her partnership in the future fortunes of the Empire."

French and English alike are, and long have been, unshaken in their loyalty to England, and it was not without reason that Sir John Macdonald, speaking a month or two back, expressed his satisfaction at the change in our attitude towards the British Colonies, and said with respect to the people of the Dominion, of which we have such just reason to be proud, and in which he holds the distinguished position of Prime Minister, that "they were ready to accept the increased responsibility entailed by Federation, ready to enter into an offensive and defensive alliance with the mother country, ready to sacrifice their last man and their last shilling in defence of the Empire." It is in such a spirit as this that the great question of Federation—one of the most important that a British statesman can take in hand—should be approached, and that without delay. This great work accomplished, the Empire, to use the impressive words of Mr. Froude, "would be linked together by a bond to which the most ingenious parliamentary union would be as pack-thread. Each member of the vast community would be left free to manage its internal affairs as might seem best to itself, and, secure in being admitted into partnership with the most splendid empire which the earth has ever seen, it would as little think of separating as the hand would think of separating from the body."

The compiler of this Handbook desires to acknowledge the great assistance he has derived in the course of its preparation from Dr. Withrow's 'Popular History of Canada' (Ottawa, 1884); Professor Fream's 'Canadian Agriculture' (2 parts, London, 1885), and his 'Report on Canada and its Agricultural Resources' (Ottawa, 1885); Professor Macoun's 'Manitoba and the Great North-West' (Guelph, Ont., 1882); Mr. H. B. Small's 'Canadian Forests' (Montreal, 1884), and his Canadian 'Industries and Manufactures' (Ottawa, 1885); Mr. D. A. O'Sullivan's 'Manual of Government in Canada' (Toronto, 1879); Paper on 'The Fisheries of Canada,' prepared by Mr. L. Z. Joncas for the International Fisheries Exhibition (London, 1883); Professor Daniel Wilson's article on "Canada" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (London, 1876); Mr. W. J. Patterson's pamphlet on 'The Dominion of Canada' (Montreal, 1883); pamphlet on 'The Mineral Resources of Canada' (Ottawa, 1882); 'A Guide Book' published by the Government of Canada (Ottawa, 1885); Canadian Blue-books and Reports on Agriculture, Fisheries and Marine, Railways and Canals, and Mortuary Statistics; and other works incidentally referred to in the body of the Handbook.

APPENDIX A.

TABLE SHOWING THE POPULATION OF THE SEVERAL PROVINCES OF CANADA IN 1871 AND 1881, WITH THE NUMERICAL INCREASE AND RATE OF INCREASE PER CENT.

Provinces.	Persons, 1871.	Persons, 1881.	Increase.	
			Numerical.	Per Cent.
Prince Edward Island . .	94,021	108,891	14,870	15·8
Nova Scotia	387,800	440,572	52,772	13·6
New Brunswick	285,594	321,233	35,639	12·5
Quebec	1,191,516	1,359,027	167,511	14·0
Ontario	1,620,851	1,923,228	302,377	18·6
Manitoba	18,995	65,954	46,959	247·2
British Columbia	36,247	49,459	13,212	36·4
North-West Territories . .	52,000	56,446	4,446	8·5
Total . . .	3,687,024	4,324,810	637,786	17·3

The four provinces which first formed the Dominion—Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick—increased 16 per cent. during the period 1871–1881, as against 12·8 per cent. increase in the previous decade.

APPENDIX B.

ORIGINS OF THE PEOPLE.

Provinces.	English and Welsh.	Irish.	Scotch.	French.	German and Dutch.	Scandinavian.	Swiss.	Indian.	African.	Chinese.	People of other Origins.
Prince Edward I.	21,568	25,415	48,933	10,751	1,368	38	1	281	155	..	381
Nova Scotia . .	131,383	66,067	146,027	40,141	42,101	735	1,860	2,125	7,062	..	3,071
New Brunswick .	94,861	101,284	49,829	56,635	10,683	932	41	1,401	1,638	..	3,929
Quebec . . .	81,866	123,749	54,923	1,075,130	8,409	648	254	7,515	141	7	6,385
Ontario . . .	542,232	627,262	378,536	102,743	210,557	1,578	2,382	15,325	12,090	22	30,494
Manitoba . . .	11,606	10,173	16,506	9,949	9,158	1,023	19	6,767	25	4	733
British Columbia	7,596	3,172	3,892	916	952	236	40	25,661	274	4,350	2,370
The Territories .	1,375	281	1,217	2,896	32	33	..	49,472	2	..	1,138
Totals .	891,248	951,403	699,863	1,298,929	284,731	5,223	4,588	108,547	21,394	4,383	48,501

BIRTHPLACES OF THE PEOPLE.

Provinces.	*Brit'sh Isles* and Possessions.	Prince Edward Island.	Nova Scotia.	New Brunswick.	Quebec.	Ontario.	Manitoba.	British Columbia.	Territories.	United States.	Other Foreign Countries.
Prince Edward I.	8,814	95,234	2,507	1,346	177	105	..	..	..	609	99
Nova Scotia . .	23,839	1,639	405,687	4,482	441	333	..	6	1	3,004	1,140
New Brunswick .	25,133	2,719	6,160	277,643	3,127	310	1	3	2	5,108	1,027
Quebec . . .	52,015	586	813	1,272	1,269,075	10,379	33	19	48	19,415	5,372
Ontario . . .	353,904	686	3,706	2,801	50,407	1,435,647	62	42	158	45,454	30,361
Manitoba . . .	8,233	154	820	341	4,085	19,125	18,020	25	6,422	1,752	6,977
British Columbia	5,994	23	379	374	396	1,572	24	32,175	14	2,295	6,213
The Territories	303	6	16	6	101	517	1,450	5	51,785	116	2,141
Totals .	478,235	101,047	420,088	288,265	1,327,809	1,467,988	19,590	32,275	58,430	77,753	53,330

APPENDIX C.

TABLE SHOWING THE POPULATION OF CITIES AND TOWNS HAVING OVER 5,000 INHABITANTS, WITH THE INCREASE IN THE PERIOD 1871–1881.

Places.	Provinces.	Population.		Numerical Increase.	Increase per cent.
		1871.	1881.		
Montreal	Quebec	107,225	140,747	33,522	31·21
Toronto	Ontario	56,092	86,415	30,323	54·05
Quebec	Quebec	59,699	62,446	2,747	4·60
Halifax	Nova Scotia	29,582	36,100	6,518	22·03
Hamilton	Ontario	26,716	35,961	9,245	34·60
Ottawa	Ontario	21,545	27,412	5,867	27·23
St. John	New Brunswick	28,805	26,127	2,678	9·29
London	Ontario	15,826	19,746	3,920	24·76
Portland	New Brunswick	12,520	15,226	2,706	21·61
Kingston	Ontario	12,407	14,091	1,684	13·57
Charlottetown	Prince Edward Island	8,807	11,485	2,678	30·40
Guelph	Ontario	6,878	9,890	3,012	43·79
St. Catharine's	Ontario	7,864	9,631	1,767	22·46
Brantford	Ontario	8,107	9,616	1,509	18·61
Belleville	Ontario	7,305	9,516	2,211	30·26
Trois Rivières	Quebec	7,570	8,670	1,100	14·53
St. Thomas	Ontario	2,197	8,367	6,170	280·83
Stratford	Ontario	4,313	8,239	3,926	91·02
Winnipeg	Manitoba	241	7,985	7,744	3213·27
Chatham	Ontario	5,873	7,873	2,000	34·05
Brockville	Ontario	5,102	7,609	2,507	49·13
Levis	Quebec	6,691	7,597	906	13·54
Sherbrooke	Quebec	4,432	7,227	2,795	63·06
Hull	Quebec	*	6,890	*	*
Peterborough	Ontario	4,611	6,812	2,201	47·73
Windsor	Ontario	4,253	6,561	2,308	54·26
St. Henri	Quebec	*	6,415	*	*
Fredericton	New Brunswick	6,006	6,218	212	3·49
Victoria	British Columbia	3,270	5,925	2,655	81·19
St. Jean Baptiste (village)	Quebec	4,408	5,874	1,466	33·25
Sorel	Quebec	5,636	5,791	155	2·75
Port Hope	Ontario	5,114	5,585	471	9·21
Woodstock	Ontario	3,982	5,373	1,391	34·93
St. Hyacinthe	Quebec	3,746	5,321	1,575	42·04
Galt	Ontario	3,827	5,187	1,360	35·53
Lindsay	Ontario	4,049	5,080	1,031	25·46
Moncton	New Brunswick	*	5,032	*	*

* The limits of the city of Hull and of the towns of St. Henri and Moncton not having been defined in 1871, the numerical increase cannot be stated. In the city of St. John, New Brunswick, owing to the great fire of 1877, when half the city was laid in ashes, and great numbers were driven into the surrounding districts, there was a decrease of population from 28,805 in 1871, to 26,127 in 1881. Omitting these cities and towns, the total increase of population in the places included in the above Table was 147,004, or 29·71 per cent., during the ten years 1871–1881. The present population of Montreal is estimated at 173,000, Toronto 125,000, Quebec 65,000, Halifax 40,000, Ottawa 31,000, Winnipeg 30,000, Victoria 9,000.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—The Dominion of Canada comprehends all that portion of the North American Continent—with the exception of Labrador—which lies to the north of the 49th parallel, the great lakes, and the basin of the St. Lawrence, and between the meridians of 53° and 141° east longitude. The total area of this territory, including Labrador, the western limit of which is not well defined, exceeds three millions of square miles. The settled portions of the Dominion, which are generally understood in speaking of Canada, comprise the provinces of Quebec (better known under the name of Lower Canada), Ontario (formerly Upper Canada), Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Manitoba (formerly the Red River territory), British Columbia, Prince Edward Island, and the North-West Territories. The geography of the various provinces will be considered separately hereafter.

INLAND SEAS, GULFS AND STRAITS.—The principal inlets of British North America are all upon the eastern coast of the continent, which is throughout much more indented than the western. These are Baffin Bay, Hudson Bay, the Gulf of Boothia, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Bay of Fundy.

Baffin Bay is enclosed by the islands, many of them of large size, which adjoin the north-eastern shores of the American continent. It stretches northward to the 78th parallel and forms a broad deep sea more than 300 miles in width. Throughout the greater part of the year, navigation is rendered well-nigh impossible by immense bergs and floes of floating ice, and near the shores the ice becomes annually fixed, for a considerable distance seaward, in a solid mass. Davis Strait is the name given to the broad expanse of water which connects Baffin Bay with the North Atlantic Ocean.

Hudson Bay is in reality a great inland sea, only second in size to the Mediterranean. It covers an area of 350,000 square miles. Like Baffin Bay, it is obstructed by ice during great part of the year, and near the shores are many shoals, reefs, and small islands. A southern prolongation of this sea is known as James Bay, and on its north-western side are deep inlets, distinguished as Chesterfield Inlet and Wager River. Entrance is obtained to Hudson Bay from the Atlantic by Hudson Strait, from 80 to 100 miles wide. Frobisher Bay, Parry Gulf, and Fox Channel are further to the northward. The Gulf of Boothia is immediately to the westward of Fox Channel, between Boothia and Melville Peninsulas.

The Gulf of St. Lawrence, between New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, on the south, and Labrador on the north, is a wide arm of the sea giving access to the River St. Lawrence. It is connected with the Atlantic by two channels, one some 60 miles in width, between Cape Breton and Newfoundland, and a narrower one, called the Strait of Belle Isle, between the northern part of Newfoundland and Labrador.

The Bay of Fundy is a narrow inlet between the peninsula of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. From the strength and swiftness of its tides, the navigation of this bay is attended with considerable danger. At the equinoxes, the spring tides rise, towards the head of the bay, to a height of 70 feet, and the ordinary spring tides to a height of 30 feet, forming a great

wave of immense strength and velocity which has its parallel, though necessarily on a much smaller scale, in the bore of some of our own rivers, as the Severn and the Trent.

Besides those already mentioned, there are numerous straits between the large islands of the Polar Sea, at the extreme north of the North American continent, but, being blocked with ice throughout the year, save at rare intervals, they possess little interest to the navigator or to the geographer. What little we know of them is derived from the records of the adventurous spirits who have, at various times, tried to realize the delusive hope of discovering a practicable passage in this direction between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

CAPES, PENINSULAS, &c.—The principal headlands of British North America are Cape Bathurst and Cape Baring, on the north-western shores of the Polar sea; Cape Walsingham, in Davis Strait; Cape Race, in Newfoundland; Cape Breton, on Cape Breton Island; and Cape Sable, at the southern extremity of the peninsula of Nova Scotia.

The principal peninsulas are Nova Scotia and Labrador, on the east coast; and Boothia and Melville Peninsulas, on the north.

MOUNTAINS AND PLATEAUX.—The principal mountains of the Dominion, as of the North American continent, are the Rocky Mountains. In the extreme north, these consist of numerous parallel ridges, with longitudinal valleys between, of an elevation varying from one to two thousand feet; but towards the south the height of the ranges rapidly increases, some of the highest peaks of the entire system being found in the neighbourhood of the 52nd parallel. The principal of these are Mount Brown (15,900 feet), Mount Murchison (15,789 feet), and Mount Hooker. The average height of the chain is probably between 7,000 and 8,000 feet. The Laurentian mountains form the principal range in Eastern Canada.

PLAINS.—An immense plain stretches across the continent, in that portion of it known as British America, from the Rocky Mountains to the Atlantic seaboard. The highest part of this plain is found in the neighbourhood of the dividing line between the Dominion and the United States. Although, in no part, does it rise higher than 2,000 feet above the sea level, it forms a true water-parting, the rivers of the northern slope flowing to Hudson's Bay and the Arctic Ocean, while those of the southern slope ultimately find their way into the Gulf of Mexico.

RIVERS.—The rivers of the Dominion are numerous, and many of them are of great size. The principal is the St. Lawrence, the second largest river of the North American continent, which has its most distant source in the St. Louis, a small stream flowing into the upper end of Lake Superior. From this point to the 76th meridian extends an unbroken chain of immense lakes or inland seas, known under the names of Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario, from the last of which issues the river called the St. Lawrence. This, after a course of some 700 miles, enters the sea at the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Lake Michigan, though connected with the other lakes, lies to the southward of them, and is wholly in the United States. The channel of the St. Lawrence, reckoned from the source of the St. Louis to the Atlantic, exceeds 2,000 miles in length, and, with the exception of that part lying between Lake Ontario and Montreal, which is studded with rocks and islands, the whole of it is navigable. In the winter months, the navigation above Quebec is put an

end to by the ice; and although, below Quebec, the force of the current prevents the river from being entirely frozen over, navigation is rendered impossible by the great quantity of floating ice which is brought down from its upper course. An important tributary of the St. Lawrence is the Ottawa River.

The great plain has, in its northern part, two slopes—one easterly or north-easterly, drained by the rivers Nelson and Churchill (sometimes called the Missinnippi, and sometimes the English River), which flow into Hudson's Bay, and the other northerly, drained by the Mackenzie, which has its outlet in the Arctic Ocean. The Nelson has its origin in Lake Winnipeg, which receives the large river Saskatchewan, the Assiniboine, the Red River, and other streams. From the source of the Saskatchewan to the mouth of the Nelson, the distance is about 1,400 miles. The course of the Churchill is some 900 miles in length. The most distant source of the Mackenzie is the river Athabasca, rising at the foot of Mount Brown (in the Rocky Mountains) and flowing into Lake Athabasca; from this lake the Slave River flows into Great Slave Lake, and from the western end of this lake issues the Mackenzie River proper. The total length of the Mackenzie, with its feeder the Athabasca, is about 2,160 miles.

Other considerable rivers of the northern slope are the Coppermine and the Back, to the eastward of the Mackenzie, both of which belong to the region of the Arctic Highlands. The principal river of the west coast is the Fraser, which enters the sea in the neighbourhood of Vancouver Island.

LAKES.—British North America is pre-eminently the country of large lakes, which are here more numerous than in any other tract of equal extent throughout the globe. Mention has already been made of the vast sheets of water which form prolongations of the St. Lawrence. These, which have a united area of 90,000 square miles, are the largest fresh-water lakes in the world. They are of very unequal size, Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron being much larger than the other two. All of them have a considerable depth of water, with the exception of Lake Erie, which only has an average depth of 84 feet.

Other important lakes of the Dominion are Lake Winnipeg (9,000 square miles in area), Lake Winnipegosis (3,000 square miles), Lake Manitoba (2,100 square miles), the Lake of the Woods (1,500 square miles), Lake Athabasca (3,000 square miles), Great Slave Lake (12,000 square miles), Great Bear Lake (10,000 square miles), Deer Lake (2,400 square miles), and Lake Wollaston (1,900 square miles). There are a vast number of other lakes of smaller size in all parts of the great northern plain, some of which have been named, and others not, but in comparison with those mentioned above, they are of little geographical importance.

ISLANDS.—A great network of islands extends along the entire north coast of North America, but owing to the extreme rigour of the climate in these northern latitudes, and the difficulty of navigation, consequent upon the blocking up of the channels between them by ice, their limits have not been well defined. They are known generally as the Arctic Archipelago, and individually as Greenland, Grinnell and Ellesmere Lands, North Devon, the Parry Islands, Banks Land, Prince Albert Land, Victoria Land, King William Land, Prince of Wales Land, North Somerset, Cumberland Island, Cockburn Island, and Southampton Island. All

these, with the exception of Greenland, which is Danish, belong to Canada.

The other islands of the Dominion are Cape Breton and Prince Edward Island, on the eastern coast, near the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and Vancouver Island, Queen Charlotte Islands, and numerous smaller ones, on the west coast.

CANADA.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The great natural features of Canada proper, are the River St. Lawrence, and the great lakes by which it is fed. Of these Lakes Superior, Huron, Erie, and Ontario are to a large extent within this province, but Lake Michigan is wholly within the United States.

The country extends from the banks of the St. Lawrence in a succession of plains and table lands. These latter have no great elevation, being rarely more than 700 or 800 feet high.

In its course to the sea, the St. Lawrence expands here and there into lakes of considerable magnitude. One of these, which occurs shortly after the issue of the river from Lake Ontario, is known as the Lake of the Thousand Islands, from the great number of islets with which it is studded. After this come the Lakes of St. Francis, St. Louis, and St. Peter, the last of which is 9 miles broad. The river narrows, at Quebec, to not more than three-quarters of a mile in breadth, but beyond this point it widens rapidly, and becomes a broad estuary before it reaches the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The St. Lawrence is navigable, for the largest ocean-going steamers, as far as Montreal, 580 miles from its mouth. Beyond this point the channel is much obstructed, but these hinderances to navigation have been overcome in a great measure, by means of locks and short lateral cuts for the avoidance of rapids, so that at this day vessels of considerable size (up to 500 tons) are able to pass up to the lakes.

At the mouth of the St. Lawrence, is the large island of Anticosti, 125 miles long, by 30 broad.

The principal tributaries of the St. Lawrence are the Ottawa, the St. Maurice, and the Saguenay, upon the northern bank, and the Richelieu, the St. Francis, and the Chaudière, upon the southern. The Ottawa has numerous falls and rapids, but its lower course has been rendered navigable. It is connected with Lake Ontario by the Rideau Canal. The Richelieu, which issues from Lake Champlain, on the United States border, is navigable for 12 or 14 miles from its mouth. From the junction of the Ottawa, to some distance below the mouth of the St. Maurice, the banks of the St. Lawrence have only a very slight elevation, and this low country continues some distance inland; but as Quebec is approached the banks become steep and rocky and so continue, with few breaks, to the mouth of the river. The country about the lower course of the River St. Francis is a level plain of remarkable fertility.

Along the northern banks of the St. Lawrence to the westward of the junction of the Ottawa, the country is only of moderate elevation. Further to the westward, a narrow plain extends along the northern shore of Lake Ontario, but towards the north is a plateau of considerable elevation. As this plateau approaches Lake Huron, it attains a height of 750 feet above the level of that lake, or 1,300 feet above the level of the sea. To the southward of this plateau, and enclosed between Lakes Huron and Erie,

and the western portion of Lake Ontario, is a peninsula of considerable extent, which has a flat or slightly undulating surface, with an alluvial soil of great fertility. It is watered by numerous rivers, of which the most important are the Grand River, flowing into Lake Erie and the Thames, which enters the Lake St. Clair, the name given to the middle and wider portion of the channel between Lakes Huron and Erie. Both rivers are navigable in their lower courses.

The River Niagara which connects Lakes Erie and Ontario, is broken about midway in its course by the well known falls of that name, but by means of the Welland Canal, communication between the two lakes is practicable for vessels of 500 tons burthen.

To the northward of Lakes Huron and Superior, the country consists of a table land of considerable elevation, containing numerous lakes and small rivers.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—Canada proper is divided into seven provinces. Ontario (formerly known as Upper or Western Canada), and Quebec (Lower or Eastern Canada). The river Ottawa forms the boundary of the two provinces.

The city of Ottawa, now the political capital of the Dominion, lies on the south bank of the river of the same name, 90 miles above its mouth, and at the northern end of the Rideau Canal. It has a population of 31,000, which is rapidly increasing.

Toronto, a city of 125,000 inhabitants, on the northern shore of Lake Ontario, is the capital of Ontario. It possesses an excellent harbour.

Kingston, with about 14,000 inhabitants, is situated on the north-eastern shore of Lake Ontario, at the point where the St. Lawrence issues from it. It is a place of considerable trade. Navy Bay, the principal British naval station on the lakes, is in its immediate neighbourhood.

Other important places in the province are Cornwall, on the north bank of the St. Lawrence; Coburg, on the north side of Lake Ontario; Hamilton, at the south-west corner of that lake; Niagara, at the point where the river of that name enters Lake Ontario; London, on the Thames, midway between Lakes Erie and Huron; Chatham, on the lower portion of the same river.

The province of Quebec (formerly Lower Canada), comprises the lower portion of the valley of the St. Lawrence, from the River Ottawa to the sea. Its principal cities are Quebec and Montreal.

Quebec, the capital of the province, is on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, at the point where its channel begins to narrow. This city, which has a population estimated at about 65,000, consists of an upper and a lower town; the upper town, built on a promontory which projects into the river, is surrounded by a wall and strongly fortified; the lower town lies at the base of this rock, and contains the wharfs, dockyards, markets and some of the public buildings.

Montreal, which is larger than Quebec, and a great commercial centre, lies on the east side of an island of the same name, at the junction of the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence. It has a population of 173,000. The upper and more modern portions of the city are well built, and contain many fine public edifices. Other places in this province of some importance are Three Rivers (8,670 inhabitants), at the junction of the River St. Maurice with the St. Lawrence; Lévis, on the south bank of the St. Lawrence,

opposite Quebec; Sorel, at the junction of the Richelieu and the St. Lawrence; and St. Hyacinthe, Sherbrooke, and Stanstead, inland towns, to the southward of the last-named river.

NOVA SCOTIA.

SITUATION.—Nova Scotia and the Island of Cape Breton form together a province of the Dominion, now known as Nova Scotia. The first is a long narrow peninsula, nearly surrounded by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Bay of Fundy, and the Atlantic. Cape Breton Island lies to the north-east of Nova Scotia, from which it is separated by a narrow channel of less than a mile in width, called the Gut of Canso.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Nova Scotia possesses a fertile soil. The interior consists of a moderately elevated table-land, a part of which has an uneven surface, and contains many small lakes. The rivers running from this high ground are, from the configuration of the country, necessarily short. The coast is in many places deeply indented, and contains some excellent harbours. The area of Nova Scotia is about 20,907 square miles.

Cape Breton Island is generally hilly in the interior. The coasts are much broken, and on the east side is a deep inlet, called the Bras d'Or, which nearly divides the island into two unequal parts. The shores of this gulf contain many small bays and harbours.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—Nova Scotia is divided into eighteen (of which four are in Cape Breton) counties. Halifax, the chief town and the capital of the province, with 40,000 inhabitants, is nearly in the centre of the south-east coast of the peninsula. It possesses a magnificent harbour, of easy access, has an extensive dockyard, and is the principal naval station of Great Britain in the New World. It is also a great packet station.

Other towns are Lunenburg, Liverpool, and Shelburne, to the south-west of Halifax; Yarmouth, at the entrance of the Bay of Fundy; Annapolis, on the east side of that bay; Pictou, on the north-west coast of the peninsula, and Windsor, in the interior.

The island of Cape Breton is divided into four counties. The only town is Sydney, on the east coast, with valuable collieries in its vicinity. Louisbourg, on the south-east coast, was once a strongly fortified place, but on its capture from the French in 1758, the fortifications were demolished.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

SITUATION AND AREA.—New Brunswick lies to the eastward of Quebec. On the east and south it borders on the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Bay of Fundy; on the west, the River St. Croix and the meridian of 67° 53′ W. divide it from the United States; on the north it is separated from Quebec by the course of the River Restigouche, which falls into the Bay of Chaleurs, near the head of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Its area is 27,174 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The country presents a varied surface, being generally level along the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, while the tract which lies along the Bay of Fundy has a rocky and uneven surface, rising, to the eastward of the St. John River, to a plateau several hundred feet in

height. Along the banks of the St. John, the country is generally level, but towards the north-western part of the province it becomes somewhat hilly.

RIVERS.—The longest river of this province is the St. John, which has a course of 400 miles, and falls into the Bay of Fundy. It is navigable for sloops to Fredericton, 80 miles inland, and for flat-bottomed boats to the great falls, nearly 200 miles from its mouth. The Miramichi, which drains the central parts of the province, has a course of some 120 miles, through a district containing abundance of fine timber, and flows into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It is navigable for about 40 miles of its lower course. The Restigouche, which has its outlet in the Bay of Chaleurs, is about 85 miles long. The St. Croix falls into Passamaquoddy Bay, an inlet on the borders of New Brunswick and the United States

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—New Brunswick is divided into fifteen counties. The capital of the province is Fredericton, a small place of 6,218 inhabitants, on the south bank of the St. John, some 80 miles inland, but St. John, at the mouth of that river, with about 30,000 inhabitants, is the great commercial centre.

Other towns are St. Andrew, on the shore of Passamaquoddy Bay, Moncton, Newcastle and Chatham, at the mouth of the Miramichi River, and Bathurst, on the south side of the Bay of Chaleurs.

MANITOBA.

Manitoba is the name of a province formed in 1870, out of the territory transferred in that year from the Hudson Bay Company to the Dominion, under the terms already referred to. It is bounded on the south by the 49th parallel, on the west by Assiniboia, on the north by Saskatchawan and Keewatin, and on the east by Ontario. It has a population of about 130,000, of whom about 30,000 are in the city of Winnipeg. The other principal towns in the Province are Emerson, Portage la Prairie, Brandon, Virden and Selkirk. Winnipeg is situated at the confluence of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, both of which are navigable for considerable distances. It has also railway communication with the other parts of Canada and with the United States. It possesses a very fertile soil, and produces large quantities of cereals. Cattle raising is also becoming an important industry. The population of the Province is rapidly increasing, owing to a considerable immigration, and this is expected to continue, owing to the advantages which the Province offers to settlers who understand farm-work, or who are prepared to take up lands for agricultural purposes. The country consists of a level plain, gradually rising to the eastward.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

SITUATION AND AREA.—This Province comprehends the extensive tract lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, together with Vancouver Island, and extends from the frontier line of the United States on the south to the Simpson and Finlay Rivers, which form its northern boundary. The average breadth of this territory is 250 miles, and its area, including Vancouver Island and Queen Charlotte Islands, is calculated at

about 341,000 square miles. The length of the coast-line is about 450 miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The whole of the space between the western slopes of the Rocky Mountains and the sea is occupied to a considerable extent by spurs and outlying groups belonging to that chain. In the immediate vicinity of the coast these form a nearly continuous line of mountains of moderate elevation, known as the Cascade Range. The territory throughout is well watered by rivers which have their origin in the highlands, and find their way into the Pacific Ocean. In the upper portions of their course these widen out and form numerous lakes. The whole country is well timbered, and it possesses rich gold-fields.

The most important river of British Columbia is the Fraser, which has its outlet in the Gulf of Georgia, the arm of the sea which separates Vancouver Island from the mainland. The chief tributaries of the Fraser are the Quesnelle, the Thompson, and the Lillooet (or Harrison) River. Other rivers of British Columbia are the Columbia (which has only its upper portion within the province), the Stickeen, the Skeena, and the Finlay.

Vancouver Island, which is 290 miles long, with an average width of about 50 miles, has an area of some 14,000 square miles. The interior is hilly, rising into high mountains towards the north. The country is fertile, well watered, and rich in mineral products. The coasts have numerous good harbours.

The group known as Queen Charlotte Islands, some distance to the northward of Vancouver Island, is included within British Columbia. Coal has been found here, and gold is said to occur. The islands are inhabited solely by aborigines.

TOWNS.—Victoria (Vancouver Island) is the capital of the Province. The other principal towns are Nananno, the seat of the coal-mining industry, New Westminster, Yale, Vancouver, and Kamloops.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

SITUATION AND AREA.—Prince Edward Island is situated in the south-west part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It is divided from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick by Northumberland Strait, which varies from 11 to 20 miles in width. The island is long and narrow in shape, and its coasts are indented by numerous inlets, the principal of which are Hillsborough Bay, on the south coast, and Richmond Bay on the north. Its area is 2,133 square miles.

The surface of Prince Edward Island is generally level, the soil is very fertile, and vegetation extends to the water's edge. There are several small rivers, the principal of which, called the Hillsborough, falls into the bay of that name.

Most of the land has been brought under cultivation.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—Prince Edward Island is divided into three counties. The capital is Charlottetown, on the shore of Hillsborough Bay, which forms a good harbour. It has 11,485 inhabitants.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

GOVERNOR, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF, AND VICE-ADMIRAL,
SIR G. W. DES VŒUX, K.C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
E. D. SHEA.

FINANCIAL SECRETARY,
(Vacant).

CHAIRMAN OF BOARD OF WORKS,
SMITH McKAY.

INSPECTOR OF LIGHTHOUSES AND SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC BUILDINGS,
J. T. NEVILL.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
(Vacant).

CHIEF JUSTICE AND JUDGE OF ADMIRALTY COURT,
HON. SIR F. B. T. CARTER, K.C.M.G.

ASSISTANT JUSTICES,
HON. R. J. PINSENT, HON. J. LITTLE.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
JAMES S. WINTER, Q.C.

SOLICITOR-GENERAL,
(Vacant).

NEWFOUNDLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND prides herself on being the oldest English colony, and in loyalty and devotion to the mother country she stands second to none of her younger sisters. It would thus be an interesting place if it had no other claim to distinction than that of being the germ that has developed into the vast colonial realm which delights in the gentle sway of the English Queen.

After a good deal of controversy the discovery seems now to be generally ascribed to Sebastian Cabot,* a Bristol merchant, who, setting out on an expedition of discovery under a charter from King Henry VII., to his (Cabot's) father, sighted the island on Midsummer Day, 1497. Various controversies have also arisen as to what point of land was first sighted, but here again we are met with a variety of conflicting opinions, and the question remains unsolved to all but specialists who have themselves several opinions concerning it. The further course of his voyage again is a matter of much dispute, and as this does not affect the Colony now in question, the subject may here be dismissed. A second charter to the father, John Cabot, was granted in 1498, and empowered the expedition to trade and colonize, but nothing of special interest occurred with respect to Newfoundland, as the navigators merely touched at its shores, and were soon after driven back by ice in Hudson's Bay. A third voyage was undertaken by Sebastian Cabot in the reign of Henry VIII., with the object of finding the north-west passage, but the expedition proved the first of the many failures which have resulted from this attempt. It is a matter of the deepest regret that no original account of these remarkable voyages has come down to us from the pen of the distinguished pioneer himself. It seems probable that maps and descriptions were published as mentioned by Hackluyt, but what has become of them will now possibly never be brought to light. After this last-mentioned voyage the famous navigator entered the service of Spain, and finally returned to Bristol, where he died at an advanced age. "That native of England, commissioned by its Sovereign, who preceded Columbus in the discovery of the American Continent, who won for England her vast American Dominions, and extended so largely the Spanish Empire in America, who gave to Britain those fisheries which in former ages were to her a mine of great wealth and the nurse of her maritime strength, has no known sepulchre, has no monument to record his achievements, or to testify to his many virtues. His name, which should have been given to great part of North America, is not to be found upon its map, and has only but quite recently, on the occasion of the erection of

* Those interested in this controversy will find the evidence ably summed up in a paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute on April 14, 1885, by Mr. Justice Pinsent, D.C.L.

a lighthouse, been by the Newfoundland Legislature given to a group of barren islands on the Newfoundland coast."*

After the last of the expeditions of Cabot, little attention seems to have been paid in England, either to Newfoundland itself or its fisheries, but the Portuguese, French and Spaniards soon made it evident that they were not inclined to forego the advantages which the latter, at any rate, offered them, and it was not until later in the reign of Henry VIII. that another English expedition organized by Cardinal Wolsey visited these coasts in 1527. This expedition was under the command of a Captain Rut, who narrates that he found fishing in the waters of Newfoundland eleven vessels belonging to Normans, one to Bretons, and two to Portugal. Nine years after this an ill-starred voyage was undertaken, and owing to some mismanagement the crew were nearly starved to death, a fate from which they were fortunately rescued by the timely capture of a French vessel.

In the reign of King Henry's son, the fisheries having greatly increased, an Act 2 & 3 Edward VI. cap. 6, was passed with the special aim of their protection and encouragement. In the year 1578, it does not appear that the English had any undue share in the cod fisheries, for out of a total of 400 boats engaged in it only 50 seem to have belonged to our own country. The next insight we get into the Colony's history is the expedition under Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who, under a commission from Queen Elizabeth, notified to the various fishermen and traders, whom he summoned for the purpose, that he assumed possession of the government of St. John's, and the adjoining territory to the extent of 200 leagues. Mr. Justice Pinsent, thus describes the ceremony: "There were delivered to him in token of submission, the feudal symbols of turf and twig, and there he raised the English banner, and erected a wooden pillar, to which were attached the arms of England engraved on lead. He granted several parcels of land in consideration of rent and services, and laid a tax upon shipping. He declared the territory to be subject to English law, and such regulations, as should be rendered necessary by local circumstances; and for a beginning he declared the following to be in force immediately. In the first place for religion, which in public exercise should be according to the Church of England; secondly, for the maintenance of Her Majesty's rights and possessions, against which if anything were attempted prejudicial, the parties offending should be adjudged and executed as in case of high treason, according to the laws of England; thirdly, if any person should utter words sounding to the dishonour of Her Majesty, he should lose his ears and have his ship and goods confiscated." During his return voyage the great Sir Humphrey lost his life in a small vessel the *Squirrel*, which suddenly foundered in a storm, and the incident is pathetically recorded by Longfellow in his poem, "Sir Humphrey Gilbert."

"Alas! the land wind failed
And ice-cold grew the night;
And never more on sea or shore
Should Sir Humphrey see the light.

"He sat upon the deck,
The book was in his hand;
'Do not fear! Heaven is as near,'
He said, 'by water as by land.'"

* Mr. Justice Pinsent in the paper before referred to.

After the sad fate of the *Squirrel* and its illustrious crew, no further attempts were made at colonizing this far off land until the reign of James I., when Lord Bacon and others obtained from the king a grant of a large portion of the island, and Mr. John Guy, another Bristol merchant, proceeded to Newfoundland; but the expedition was no great success, and the next step of importance was the organized system of colonization introduced by Lord Baltimore, Under-Secretary of State, in 1624. His Lordship proceeded to the island with money and implements establishing a settlement at Avalon, and all seemed to go on prosperously until the outbreak of the war between England and France, when the threatened destruction of the young community by the contending hosts caused Baltimore to abandon it and proceed to the mainland, where he founded the State of Maryland. His possessions devolved by grant on Sir David Kirke, who enjoyed them until Cromwell confiscated them as being the grant of "Charles Stuart." At the restoration, however, he regained the larger portion of these lands, and died, as he had remained throughout his life, a thorough and active supporter of the loyalist cause. After his decease the possessions were claimed by Lord Baltimore's son, and the claims were at first allowed, but it was afterwards held that by the grant of Maryland to his father, his claim to Newfoundland lapsed, and his possessions consequently reverted to the Crown. In 1634 a party of colonists was sent over from Ireland and some English colonists arrived twenty years afterwards, their emigration having been assisted by a Parliamentary grant.

A struggle for supremacy between the fishermen and merchants on the one hand, and the would-be colonists on the other at this period, and for a century later, did very much to retard the progress which would otherwise undoubtedly have gone on in the Colony; the former wishing to preserve the bays and lands entirely for their own use, and having the ear of the Government at home, accomplished their wishes so far as to obtain a decree from the Government forbidding the foundation of "plantations" in Newfoundland, and another compelling the owners of merchant vessels to find security for bringing back any persons taken out there. Notwithstanding this lamentable policy the settlers flourished, and after a long and wearying delay, after repeated refusals, they succeeded in obtaining at the hands of the home authorities in 1696 some modification of the oppressive restrictions in the way of settlement, but on condition that the number of the resident population should not exceed one thousand. As if these harassing restrictions were not enough, the unlucky settlers had to endure attacks and annoyances from the French settlements in Acadia, Cape Breton and Canada, and the French Government having determined to be paramount in this portion of the New World, decided on attempting the conquest of Newfoundland, not only for the sake of its valuable fisheries, but as giving them the command of the Strait of Belle Isle the key to their possessions on the mainland.

Accordingly when war actually broke out on the accession of William III., Newfoundland was the scene of many a naval and military fight. The first attack was made by the English on Placentia, the chief French settlement in Newfoundland, in 1692, but the attempt to take it was not successful. The French in their turn make an attack in 1694 with the object of driving the English entirely out of the island, but this attack also failed, and the French Admiral returned discomfited to his native land.

A more vigorous attempt was made later in the same year, which resulted in the capture of St. John's and the laying waste of all the neighbouring English settlements, with the exception of Carbonier and Bonavista. England at once began active preparations for expelling the invaders, but before further hostilities the war was terminated by the Treaty of Ryswick, which restored the sovereignty to England, but left the French in possession of Placentia, and other places on the south coast. The short interval of peace under this Treaty was abruptly terminated in 1702, and Newfoundland was again the site of hostilities, a squadron of the English fleet having been sent out to expel the French from the island, and succeeded in doing so with the sole exception of their stronghold of Placentia. The French in their turn succeeded in harassing many English settlements along the coast, and twice assailed the capital, the first time unsuccessfully, but at the second one, made in 1708, they surprised St. John's, and practically captured the island, remaining in possessing until the conclusion of peace by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. Under the terms of this celebrated Treaty the whole island, including of course Placentia, was restored to English rule, but an unfortunate provision giving the French fishermen the privilege not only of fishing along the coast from Bonavista to Cape Riche, but also to make use of the shore for drying their captures, has been a constantly recurring source of trouble to this day.

In 1728, soon after the accession of George II., the first regularly appointed Governor, Captain Osborn, was sent out, and was at once met with the opposition of the fishery magnates, who were alarmed at the appointment of justices of the peace, and other measures tending to open up the country and destroy their monopoly; and it was not until the lapse of half a century that the final triumph of the civil authority over the "fishing admirals" was secured. These gentlemen derived their authority from the Act 10 & 11 William and Mary, c. 43, which vested summary powers in the commanders of ships who were the first to arrive in any harbour, and who became admiral, vice-admiral, and rear-admiral of the port, not from any special qualifications, but solely according to the order of their arrival. These were usually rude and illiterate, and the view entertained of them by the settlers may be best gathered by the following quotation from a representation they made to the Home Government on the subject in 1715: "The admirals prove generally the greatest knaves, and do most prejudice, being generally judge and party in hearing suits for debt, and when they serve themselves they will do justice to others. So it will be requisite to have a civil government, and persons appointed to administer justice in the most frequented places, that we may be governed as 'Britons' and not live like banditti or forsaken people, without law or gospel." The admirals, however, maintained that the Order in Council appointing the civil authorities as it clashed with the terms of an Act of Parliament was simply inoperative, and the case had to be referred to the law officers of the Crown, who held that the authority of the admirals only applied to fishery matters and gave them no jurisdiction as against any civil authorities duly constituted by His Majesty.

The first fifty years witnessed a constant warfare between the civil authority on the one hand, and the claims of the fishery-admirals on the other, resulting, however, in the gradual and complete triumph of the former. These controversies, at this lapse of time, present little further interest for

the general public, and we will therefore merely indicate the events of this period, which have an important bearing on the history of the Colony's development. The first of these was the establishment of a Court of Oyer and Terminer in 1750, which was a great boon to the settlers, as previously all persons accused of felony had to be sent to England for trial. In 1754 another Lord Baltimore renewed the family claim to the island; but the claim was again disallowed, and has not since been put forward. The conquest of Canada by Wolfe in 1759, was fraught with much advantage to Newfoundland, as instead of a powerful enemy in their immediate neighbourhood, the settlers now had the succour of their own countrymen close at hand. The defeated Gauls, however, still hovered about the coasts, and in 1762 made a further desperate attempt to gain possession of the coveted isle, and the attack was nearly successful, as the French succeeded in evading the English war vessels and landed, marching on the capital and outmatching the garrison; prompt reinforcements, however, arrived from Halifax, under Lord Colville and Colonel Amherst, and the French were defeated on land, and nearly captured at sea, but during a fog managed to elude the blockading fleet. The following year peace was concluded by the Treaty of Paris. It is a matter of much regret, that under this famous treaty steps were not taken to put an end to the French claims for fishery rights; but instead of doing so it confirmed and extended the stipulations of former treaties, as the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon were ceded to France as a shelter for her fishermen, with certain conditions as to fortifications and garrisons, thus strengthening her hold on the Newfoundland fisheries.

A census of the island taken in this same year (1763), returned the population as 13,112. The return of peace, moreover, did much to strengthen the hands of the civil power. In the year of the Treaty of Paris too, the governor of Newfoundland received further jurisdiction with a view of enabling him to exercise control over the whole district, his title being changed to that of "Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over the island of Newfoundland in North America, and of all the coast of Labrador, from the entrance of Hudson's Straits to the river St. John's." In the following year, Sir Hugh Palliser succeeded to the governorship, a collector of customs was appointed, and the island was declared one of His Majesty's "plantations," a step which was bitterly resented by the old *régime*. The condition of the population at this period had somewhat improved, and there was sore need of an amelioration. Sir Hugh Palliser had in the meantime returned to England, being succeeded in the governorship by the Hon. John Byron. Soon after his return to England the representations which he made to the Home Government induced them to pass an Act remedying some of the abuses of the fisheries under the old Act of William and Mary. This Act is known as Statute 15 George III. c. 31. Soon after this the American War of Independence broke out, and caused great suffering in Newfoundland from trade depression and other causes; Lord Shuldham had succeeded Captain Byron in the governorship during the interval, being replaced in turn by Admiral Elliot. The Treaty of Versailles in 1783 did very little towards abrogating the rights of France in the fishery question; on the contrary, it confirmed the main provisions of former treaties. Two years later some provision for religious organization was made by placing the island under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Nova Scotia. This brings

us to the period of the French Revolution, and the consequent war between England and France, during the governorship of Admiral Wallace, the French again making an attack on the island, and their last. St. John's, however, was too well fortified for its reduction to be attempted, and the enemy contented themselves with landing, plundering, burning a settlement at the Bay of Bulls, and afterwards disappearing. Admiral Waldegrave succeeded to the governorship in 1796, and "proved to be a very humane and enlightened ruler," setting himself to work in right earnest for the improvement of the people.

The events of the present century are not of a very exciting character, but have mainly been those tending to quiet political and social development; the principal are the following—a separate legislature granted in 1832, the establishment of a bishopric in 1839, the great fire at St. John's in June 1846, the grant of a separate constitution in 1855, the geological survey begun in 1864, and another attempt made to settle the fishery question by a Convention between the English and French Governments in 1869. The present Governor is Sir G. W. des Voeux, K.C.M.G.

The principal employment in Newfoundland is the fishery industry, but mining is beginning to assert itself, more especially that for copper. The chief fisheries are the cod, herring, lobster and salmon fisheries, to which seal hunting forms a remunerative adjunct. At the first Exhibition of the series inaugurated by H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, well remembered as the International Fisheries Exhibition of 1883, no pains or expense were spared to obtain and publish the most reliable information* regarding the fisheries of the whole habitable globe, and, among these, those of Newfoundland occupy a conspicuous place. We cannot do better, therefore, than quote from the carefully prepared paper on the subject read at one of the conferences by the Hon. Sir Ambrose Shea, K.C.M.G., whose long association in the Government of Newfoundland has reflected alike distinctions on himself and on this important Colony.

"The cod fishery," says Sir Ambrose, "from the discovery of the island, has been, and still continues to be, the main element of its resources; nor are there at this day any symptoms of exhaustion. Seasons vary in productiveness, and unfavourable returns have sometimes extended over a course of years, and have raised questions as to whether the supply was not in course of diminution. But such speculations have always so far been ended by the return of abundant fisheries, showing that as far as Newfoundland is concerned, the cause of 'short catches' lay in reasons apart from the failure of the species.

"Notwithstanding the use of these fisheries for so many centuries, the present season [1883] has witnessed as large a catch as was ever known, and this fact undoubtedly furnishes an answer to all questions as to the 'exhaustion of the cod' on the Newfoundland coast. As a rule our cod fisheries begin in June and end in October, the most productive months being June and July, when the coast is visited by a small fish called the 'caplin.' This fish, which somewhat resembles the American 'smelt,' swarms on all parts of the coast, to which it resorts to spawn about the middle of June, in almost unlimited quantity. It is then that the cod, attracted by the caplin, is found along the shore in its greatest abundance.

* Fisheries Exhibition Literature: Clowes & Sons, 1884.

The caplin supplies the bait for that portion of the fishing which is carried on with hook and line, the other modes of capture being by means of a trap and a cod-seine, which is a net from 100 to 120 fathoms long, having a depth varying from 50 to 100 feet in the centre, but narrowing towards the extremities. This seine is swept round a body of fish, and drawn together. The foot is then hauled up, enclosing very often 40 or 50 tons weight of fish. Fixed cod-nets are also used to some extent, while the degree of success which attends the different methods is a varying and uncertain condition, neither being sufficiently assured to warrant its absolute and exclusive application.

"The coast-line for Newfoundland proper covers an extent of 2,000 miles, exclusive of Labrador, on which the Colony possesses 1,000 miles of fishing ground. Here the fishing population is migratory. Those of our people who resort to Labrador go there in June and return in October, the residents, whose lives are spent in a primitive and unambitious manner, being a very small number.

"The cure of the fish requires much care and judgment, the weather being a very important factor in the operation. Unbroken sunshine is not desirable, while a long continuation of wet produces deterioration of quality; the best cure is effected when the weather is variable. It is not more necessary that the fish should be exposed to the sun to dry than it should be piled and left in bulks to be gradually matured. Hence the reason for varying weather being desirable.

"The quantity of dried codfish produced during a season averages 75,000 to 80,000 tons per annum. The value aggregates about £1,250,000 sterling, the cured fish being exported to Brazil, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the West Indies, and a small quantity to England."

The seal fishery is the next production in point of importance, and formerly employed nearly four hundred vessels, but has been changed by the introduction of steam, the fishery being now carried on by about twenty-five steamers, not more than forty or fifty sailing vessels remaining, through the obvious impossibility of effective competition. Sir Ambrose Shea goes on to observe that "the pursuit of this fishery is of far more recent date than that of the cod, the whole catch at the end of the last century being only about 5,000 seals per annum. It continued to increase, and in 1820 there were over 200,000 taken. Winds and ice conditions have a regulating effect on the success of the voyage, and the results show a most important variation. Thus in 1844, 685 thousand were taken; in 1860, 444 thousand; in 1872, 278 thousand; in 1882, 156 thousand, the smallest on record; while in 1883 the catch was about 400 thousand.

"Winds and ice play an important part in the prosecution of the sealing voyage, but there is a strong conflict of opinion as to whether the species is not diminishing in quantity. The falling off of the catch of late years is probably, in some degree at least, ascribable to this cause, and hence has arisen the serious question whether some measures of restriction may not be applied with advantage. At present the only regulating law is one which restrains steamers from proceeding on their voyage before the 10th of March, while sailing vessels may leave port on the 1st. About the 1st of March the seal brings forth its young upon the ice-fields. The young seal, which is the most eagerly sought after, is matured for commercial use about the 20th of March, when the skin and fat, separated from the carcase, has

a weight of fully forty pounds. If taken about the 10th or 12th, the weight is not over twelve or fourteen pounds. It is to prevent the taking of immature seals, and the consequent loss, that steamers are kept, thus preventing their premature appearance on the scene of slaughter. When winds prevail from the shore, and keep the ice slack, a ship can travel more or less at discretion, and the result on the whole is then a success. A prevalence of east wind generally blocks the coast, and packs the ice in the surrounding seas, so that at the critical period between the 15th and the end of March, should this condition of things prevail, the ships are imprisoned, and the issue is a losing one. It sometimes happens that ships are fortunately jammed amidst multitudes of seals, and then they obtain their full fares without chance of competition from those outside. As many as twelve or fifteen thousand a day are often secured by those favoured with this exceptional opportunity.

"In the case of sailing vessels, the men have half the gross receipts of the voyage for their share, but, owing to the greater cost of steamers, and their expensive outfit, the men's share is now reduced to one-third.

"The steamers are from three to six hundred tons burthen, wood built, full-timbered, with hold beams, heavily planked, sheathed, and thoroughly equipped to endure severe trials in the ice floes. They cost from twelve to twenty thousand pounds each or even more, and, as they can only be employed profitably during the short period of the seal fishery, which rarely occupies more than two months, and as this has been proved a business of chequered success, it cannot be contended that the investment is one of large attraction. To the people of Newfoundland the substitution of steam for sailing vessels has proved a loss; the quantity taken has not at least shown any increase on the average of former times, while the men's share has been greatly diminished. Moreover, the sailing vessels were in a large degree the property of resident 'planters,' whose earnings helped to swell the commonwealth, while now the ownership has passed into the hands of large capitalists, some of whom live abroad, and, in the nature of things, their means cannot play the same important part in promoting the social well-being of the colony.

"Following in importance to the seal comes the herring fishery. The supply of this fish is very large, especially on the south-west coast, where, during the winter and spring months, a material amount of business is done, a large portion of the fish being sent to the United States in a frozen condition. It is not a rich fish, nor has it been turned to as much account as it might be as a cured article of export. What is prized most in this branch of the trade is the Labrador herring, which for size and nutritious properties is superior to any that the resources of the world gave to the Fisheries Exhibition. This fishery is rarely followed as a separate pursuit. Herrings usually appear in August, and are seldom found on the coast after September. The fishing is attended to by the cod fishermen as an adjunct to 'the fishery,' as the cod-fishery alone is termed. For various reasons the herring fishery has not expanded into the proportions it seems capable of attaining, but this is probably because cod-fishing offers superior attractions. The annual value is about £140,000. Herrings are taken in mesh nets and in seines. As many as two thousand barrels have been enclosed in one haul of the seine. When taken in such large quantities the cure is often inferior, from the difficulty of saving the

fish in good time. Net fishing is more regular and satisfactory. The United States and Canada receive the larger portion of the catch of Labrador herrings. They should undoubtedly be known more extensively in England, and their excellence would give them a high place in the fish-food market.

"Lobsters have received some attention during the past few years, and the export of canned lobsters to England, to which country they are almost wholly sent, amounts to over £20,000. This fish will decidedly need the application of some conservative measures, for it already gives signs of exhaustion which it would be wise to regard. The high quality of the Newfoundland lobsters secured for them the only gold medal given for this fish by the jurors at the Fisheries Exhibition, and the local Government will no doubt direct its attention to the means by which to guard this promising industry against strains beyond its capacity.

"Salmon are found in greater or less quantities all around the coast, the finest being those taken at Labrador. In quality these are equal to any in the world. This fishery is carried on for purely commercial purposes, and nets are the means of its prosecution. June and July are our salmon fishing months, and one rarely sees the fish at any other time. In addition to fish consumed in the colony, the catch averages 4,000 tierces of 300 lbs. each, salted, packed, and sent chiefly to American markets, where they are sold for from £6 to £7 per tierce.

"The whole value of the Newfoundland fisheries has reached a million and three quarters sterling per annum hitherto; and this year (1883) it will not be far short of two millions.

"The resources of the colony are not confined to its fish produce, as has been the prevailing impression. Already, within a period of twenty years, copper-mining has grown to a degree which makes Newfoundland rank as fifth in the list of copper-exporting countries of the world. As the growth and outcome of these industries, the colony has an annual import and export trade of over three millions sterling, and the stable character of the commerce of the colony, based upon its fisheries, is well illustrated and substantiated by the fact that two local banks, possessing an aggregate capital of less than one hundred and fifty thousand pounds, supply all banking facilities required for its trade. We have in this statement evidence of the soundness of trade, and the absence of the speculative element. The cases are rare in which so small an amount of borrowed money has a place in the business capital of a country, while even in the banks the merchants are large stockholders. Failures of any consequence are said to be so rare that they scarcely have a place in the estimate of contingencies."

In addition to copper, silver and lead mines are beginning to be worked, and the mineral resources of the country seem likely to add to its wealth and consequent advancement.

There is only one railway in the island, that from St. John's to Hall's Bay, with branches to Brigus and Harbour Grace, a total length of 340 miles. The roads of the colony are confined almost exclusively to the southern seaboard. Telegraphs have been constructed, and the western terminus of the Atlantic Cable is at Newfoundland.

A good deal of misapprehension is said to exist in this country with regard to the climate of Newfoundland and its fogs, owing no doubt to the

misty appearance from the sea, but the fog is said to lie off the shore, without coming on land. A notable feature is the almost entire absence of spring, summer coming suddenly at the end of a second winter. The cold of winter is not excessive, much less so than that of Canada, as the thermometer rarely falls below zero, and far less gloomy than the English winter. The mean temperature of the island is 43°, the thermometer seldom rising beyond 80°. The Indian summer, the most beautiful season of the year, exists in Newfoundland as in the United States; but the winters are far more changeable, owing probably to the proximity of the sea. Other features of the climate are the "silver thaw," and the altogether exceptional brilliancy of the *aurora borealis*.

The soil of the island is far too sterile to admit of extensive agriculture; about 600,000 bushels are produced annually, as well as limited crops of oats, barley and carrots.

The constitution of Newfoundland does not call for special notice. It consists of the usual system of a governor appointed by the Crown, aided by a responsible Executive Council, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. The House of Assembly of 33 members is elected by householders who have occupied a dwelling as owner or tenant for one year immediately preceding the day of election. Justice is administered by the Supreme Court of Judicature, which was established originally in 1792, but reconstituted in 1824, with a Chief Justice and two other judges, having civil and criminal jurisdiction over the whole island.

After many years of neglect, as we have seen, some systematic attempt was made to organise the religious teaching of the island by placing it in 1787 under the jurisdiction of the see of Nova Scotia; and in 1839 the Colony was constituted a separate diocese, having also ecclesiastical jurisdiction over the Bermudas. The Church of England, according to the last census, numbered about 69,000, and the number of clergy in Newfoundland is 54.

The Roman Catholics constitute a considerable fraction (nearly two-fifths) of the population, mainly of French and Irish origin, and the former are as loyal as their congeners in Canada. There are two bishops attached to the various communities, and the number of adherents is about 64,000, only some 5,000 less than those belonging to the Church of England.

Of the nonconforming sects, the Wesleyans are by far the most numerous, and may be put down at 35,000.

The population of Newfoundland at the last census was 161,374, but is now probably over 180,000. The aborigines, consisting of the celebrated Bethuk tribe, are now extinct; the last seen alive was in the year 1829. An expedition sent out soon afterwards with the view of finding further members of the tribe did not succeed in the attempt.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—Newfoundland is a large island to the south-east of Labrador, from which it is separated by the Strait of Belle Isle, a narrow channel in some parts less than twelve miles across. A broader

waterway, some sixty miles in width, between Newfoundland and Cape Breton Island, forms the principal entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. On all sides but the west, the coast of Newfoundland is open to the Atlantic.

The greatest length of the island, from north to south, is 350 miles, and its average breadth 130 miles. Its estimated area is 40,200 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The coast line is very irregular, especially in the south-eastern portion, forming a succession of deep bays and estuaries, with peninsulas and headlands between. From the sea, the appearance of Newfoundland is rugged in the extreme, particularly on the western coast, which is in general high and rocky: low hills form the principal feature of the eastern side of the island. Chains of hills are found in the interior, with numerous rivers and lakes, some of the latter of considerable size: indeed, it is estimated that one-third of the island is covered with water. None of the interior is inhabited; the settlements are all either on the coast or near to it, but such parts of the interior as have been visited appear to be, for the most part, rocky and sterile, although land capable of cultivation occurs on the banks of the rivers. Timber is found in the same localities, but not in any considerable quantity.

The climate of Newfoundland presents great extremes of heat and cold, although not to the same extent as that of the adjacent mainland. It is very humid, particularly in the winter, which occupies a good portion of the year; and the fogs of Newfoundland, occasioned by the immense fields of ice brought down by the great Polar current, are proverbial. The length of the winter and the comparative sterility of the soil probably afford a sufficient reason for the indisposition to engage in agricultural pursuits which is manifested by the inhabitants of the island; but it is not easy to understand why so little effort has been made to utilise the valuable metalliferous deposits which exist in various parts of the country. Attention appears to be almost solely directed to the fisheries, an industry for which Newfoundland has been celebrated from the earliest times.

The cod fishery is principally pursued on the well-known banks of Newfoundland, extensive submarine elevations to the south and south-eastward of the island, which extend over a length of some 600 or 700 miles, with deep water between. The Great Bank, which lies farthest to the eastward, is upwards of 300 miles long and about 250 miles broad. The depth of water upon it varies from 15 to 80 fathoms. Cod fish are found upon this bank in prodigious numbers, but while, in consequence, this fishing ground is much resorted to by the French and Americans, English fishermen prefer to prosecute their industry nearer the shores of Newfoundland, by reason of the greater facilities thereby afforded them for drying and curing the fish caught. The pursuit of the fishing industry, amid the continual fogs of this region, and the storms of rain and sleet by which they are frequently accompanied, is attended with much hardship and discomfort, not unmingled with a considerable spice of danger.

CAPES.—The principal are Cape Race, at the south-east extremity of the island; Cape Ray and Cape St. George, on the western side; and Cape Bauld, in the extreme north.

BAYS AND HARBOURS.—The number of inlets, many of which form excellent harbours, is very great. The most important are Conception,

Trinity, Bonavista, Notre Dame, White and Hare Bays, on the eastern and northern coasts; St. George Bay, on the west side of the island; and Fortune, Placentia, and St. Mary Bays, on the south. Trinity and Placentia Bays, on opposite sides of the island, are separated by a very narrow isthmus, about a mile in width, which connects what is known as the peninsula of Avalon with the rest of Newfoundland. This peninsula is more populous and more fully settled than any other portion of the country.

ISLANDS.—The large island of Anticosti, at the mouth of the River St. Lawrence, is included within the Government of Newfoundland. It is low and swampy on the south side, high in the centre and north. Much of the interior is covered with forests, but there are here and there rich tracts of meadow land. The fisheries of the adjoining seas and those of the numerous rivers are very valuable. The sole inhabitants are a few families placed there for the purpose of affording assistance to persons shipwrecked in the neighbourhood of the island. Anticosti is 125 miles long by 30 broad.

TOWNS.—The only town of Newfoundland is St. John's, with about 11,000 inhabitants, on the south-east coast of the peninsula of Avalon. It possesses a good and secure harbour. The shores of Conception Bay and other places in this part of the island contain numerous fishing villages and hamlets, but excepting in this peninsula, there are no habitations farther than a mile from the coast.

LABRADOR, the most easterly part of North America, is included within the Government of Newfoundland. On the coast are a few Moravian missionary settlements known as Hopedale, Nain, Okak, and Hebron. Labrador is chiefly frequented for the sake of the seal and cod fisheries, and, when these are in progress, the population of the country, which is normally under 2,000, becomes raised to upwards of 50,000.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

GOVERNOR,
THE RIGHT HON. LORD CARRINGTON, G.C.B.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR,
HON. SIR ALFRED STEPHEN, G.C.M.G.

PREMIER AND COLONIAL TREASURER,
HON. SIR P. A. JENNINGS, K.C.M.G.

MINISTER OF JUSTICE,
HON. J. P GARVAN.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. G. R. DIBBS.

SECRETARY FOR LANDS,
HON. HENRY COPELAND.

SECRETARY FOR PUBLIC WORKS,
HON. W. J. LYNE.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
HON. F. B. SUTTON.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
HON. A. RENWICK.

SECRETARY FOR MINES,
HON. JAMES FLETCHER.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. JOHN H. WANT.

PRESIDENT OF THE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL,
HON. SIR JOHN HAY, K.C.M.G.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
SIR JAMES MARTIN.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. PETER FAUCETT, SIR WILLIAM M. MANNING, HON. W. C. WINDEYER,
SIR GEORGE J. L. INNES.

AGENT-GENERAL IN LONDON,
HON. SIR SAUL SAMUEL, K.C.M.G.
Secretary: S. YARDLEY.

THE AUSTRALASIAN COLONIES.

London: Wm. Clowes & Sons, Ltd.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

" Still shall Freedom keep her hold
Within the Sea's inviolate fosse,
And boast her sons of English mould,
In Islands of the Southern Cross ! "

As New South Wales is the mother colony of Australia, it will be proper to give in this place a few facts as to the early history of that vast island, the discovery of which has been fraught with such important results to the world, and to England in particular. Australia is the largest island on the surface of the earth, its area being nearly 3 million square miles, or about twenty-six times the size of Great Britain and Ireland, and only about one-fifth smaller than the whole continent of Europe. It is believed to have been altogether unknown to the ancients, and we are very much in the dark as to the precise discoverer in modern times. So far back as the year 1531, vague references are made in some Portuguese charts to a large extent of country south of the Moluccas, but nothing very definite is given concerning it. In the early years of the 17th century, some Portuguese navigators sighted portions of the northern extremities, and in 1606 a Dutch vessel found its way into the Gulf of Carpentaria, and landed some men, who, however, were killed by the natives. Other Dutch navigators sailed along the north-west and west coasts, and made such explorations as they were able to. The south-west extremity of the present Colony of South Australia was sighted by another Dutchman in 1622, and named Cape Leeuwin ; the remainder of the south coast being discovered some five years later by a vessel belonging to the same nation. Tasman in 1642 discovered Van Dieman's Land, the present Tasmania, and shortly afterwards New Zealand. No further accounts reach us till 1695, when we hear of the Swan River being partially ascended by William Vlaming in search of a missing Dutch vessel.

Four years after this appears to be the date of the first visitation of the island by the English, to wit the crew of H.M.S. *Roebuck*, which vessel in 1699 visited and explored the north-west coast. Nothing further of any note occurred till the memorable voyage of Cook. The expedition of which this famous explorer was commander consisted of the *Endeavour*, a small craft of 350 tons, having for its object a matter of no less importance than the observation of a transit of Venus. The observing party were left at Otaheite (Tahiti), and Cook then stood for the south on a voyage of discovery. The unhappy American War of Independence had resulted in the separation from Great Britain of the vast dominion now known as the United States ; one of the minor results of this lamentable event was that, with the loss of territory, the English Government was also deprived of a locality for the transportation of felons. Another field had therefore to be provided, and the success of Cook's expedition opened up not only a

new spot for this object, but inaugurated the foundation of Greater Britain in the Pacific, and placed untold wealth within the reach of the mother country. It will hardly indeed be disputed that of all the vast possessions of the English Crown, the Australian colonies offer to emigrants from our own islands a home having characteristics of almost marvellous similarity to the seagirt birthplace which never ceases to be dear to its children.

Cook's first sight of land was New Zealand, which was reached in 1769; and in April, 1770, he first saw the continent of Australia in the shape of a point of land at its south-eastern extremity, and which he named Point Hicks, after the lieutenant of the *Endeavour* who first sighted the land. This is now called Cape Howe. The vessel then standing to the north-east reached, on the 28th of April, Botany Bay, where a landing was effected and possession taken in the name of King George III. The first settlement of New South Wales was a purely penal one.

The earliest convoy was despatched from England on the 13th May, 1787, and consisted of six transport ships and three store ships, escorted by H.M.S. *Sirius* and an armed tender, and comprised 757 convicts, of whom nearly 200 were women. A force of marines was sent out as a guard, and a small quantity of live stock was also taken out, together with some tropical and other seeds and plants. This convoy took what now seems the prodigious time of eight months to reach Botany Bay, and thirty-two of the convicts died on the passage. Botany Bay was not thought a desirable place on which to turn adrift so large a body of undisciplined men, and they were consequently disembarked at Port Jackson, a few miles to the north. Captain Phillip of the *Sirius* assumed the governorship of the settlement immediately on landing, handing over the command of his ship to his next senior officer.

The early days of the Colony were clouded with many difficulties, which arose from the special circumstances attending the foundation of a settlement under such abnormal conditions; and the records of life at the Colony during the first few years are mainly an account of the control of a lawless body of men by the strong arm of military despotism. Disputes soon arose with the natives, which resulted in not inconsiderable bloodshed, and it is but fair to add that the natives (as may well be believed from the depraved character of the new-comers) were not always the aggressors. Agricultural matters were not at first propitious, and the Colony more than once was at the very verge of starvation. The convicts, too, were none the better in many cases for their comparative freedom, and from bad doings at home they got to worse at Port Jackson, and stringent measures had to be taken to preserve order. The convicts appear indeed to have been strictly subjected to the exigencies of military law.

Meantime, steps were being taken at home for the continuance of the transportation system, and a further batch of convicts arrived, some two and a half years after the first consignment. The *Lady Juliana* came, in June 1790, with 222 convicts, all of them females, and in the same month three other vessels with a number of other prisoners, the captain of one of which, the *Neptune*, was ultimately taken to task by the home authorities for his extreme cruelty. The mortality on board these four vessels was 281, and it is said that many of the convicts on the *Neptune* were left to die in irons. Constant relays of vessels with the same human freight

arrived at intervals, making a total up to June 1st, 1800, of thirty-seven vessels, and some 5,000 convicts, about one-fifth of whom were females. Dreadful mortality prevailed meantime at the new Colony itself, as many as 426 of the convicts dying in the year 1792 alone.

Although not much was done during Governor Phillip's tenure of office in the direction of actual settlement, still some steps were taken. Free emigration from the mother country was encouraged by grants of land; but measures of this kind were naturally unsuccessful, for a residence among felons could only, under any circumstances, be acceptable to men of exceptional hardihood, and nothing practically came of this offer of free land to the law-abiding citizens of England. It was accordingly considered expedient to offer grants of land to convicts whose sentences had expired, and who received free rations for eighteen months, and some farming stock and implements wherewith to start on a respectable career. While Governor Phillip held the reins of power, only 2,660 acres, however, were given to free emigrants, and 1,520 acres to emancipated convicts.

Governor Phillip retired in December, 1792, and the administration of the Colony was handed over first to Captain Grose, and then to Captain Paterson of the New South Wales Corps—a body of military police established in the new Colony, and distinguished rather for their rowdyism than any other quality. Very harsh language has been applied to this corps, and, in the opinion of historians, such language was not without justification.

The next Governor, Captain Hunter, arrived in September, 1795, and held office for five years, being succeeded by Captain King, who assumed the governorship in September, 1800, and relinquished it in August, 1806.

Governor Hunter's rule was a very beneficent one, and during its term agriculture began to make rapid strides. Sheep were introduced from the Cape, and many thousand acres of land got under grain crops; the convicts were assigned as labourers to the various settlers, who now began to arrive more freely when the reins of power were held in strong and capable hands. Exploration both inland and on the coast was carried on with much spirit and success. The administration of Governor King was similarly marked by a great progress in agricultural matters; but the general prosperity was much marred by the practical monopoly possessed by the New South Wales Corps of every article of merchandise; and the baneful effects of their sale of rum to the emancipated convicts and the immigrants throw a lurid light upon this portion of the early history of the Colony. In August, 1806, Captain Bligh replaced Governor King. He was never popular, owing no doubt to his connection with the notorious mutiny on board the *Bounty*, and partly as a result of his Quixotic attempt to regulate the price of produce. After a stormy rule of less than eighteen months, he was forcibly seized by the New South Wales Corps, put on board a vessel, and actually sent back to England. This rebellious act led, as may naturally be expected, to the cashiering of the Commander of the Corps.

Major-General Macquarie succeeded Governor Bligh on New Year's Day, 1810, and the state of the Colony at that time is thus described in his own words:—"I find the Colony barely emerging from infantile imbecility, suffering from various privations and disabilities; the country impenetrable beyond forty miles from Sydney; agriculture in a yet languishing state; commerce in its early dawn; revenue unknown; threatened

with famine; distracted by faction; the public buildings dilapidated; the few roads and bridges almost impassable; the population, in general, depressed by poverty; no credit, public or private; the morals of the great mass of the people in the lowest state of debasement; and religious worship almost wholly neglected."

Governor Macquarie seems, according to the early records, to have entertained a remarkably good opinion of his own methods of government, which were in fact distinguished by much eccentricity and by a lack of due appreciation of the Herculean difficulties of the early settlers. It is only just to add that his rule was distinguished by the vigorous erection of public buildings and of road-making, especially of a road over the Blue Mountains. He founded the City of Bathurst, and the towns of Windsor, Richmond, and Castlereagh. This Governor, however eccentric in some directions, was distinguished for his great activity and his devotion to the duties of his station. He left the Colony in 1821, and was replaced by Sir Thomas Brisbane.

General Brisbane's governorship was not altogether a successful one. He is chronicled as being deficient in nerve and decision of character; and though his intentions were excellent, he lacked the energy to carry them through. The New South Wales Corps was sent home to England shortly after his arrival, to the great joy of the Colonists, by a most salutary decision of the Home Government, and its place supplied by the 3rd Regiment. An event of the highest importance took place in 1824, viz., the establishment of a Legislative Council of six members to assist in the Government of the Colony; hitherto the actions of successive Governors had been solely under the control of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. About the same time, too, the Colony began to *export* produce, ten vessels being mentioned as having left Sydney in that year laden with grain and wool. One of the least fortunate acts of Governor Brisbane was his tampering with the currency, which, though inexcusable on general grounds of political economy, and productive of no good results in this case, was no doubt pressed on him by an accumulation of agricultural and other disasters. It is satisfactory to note, too, that, during his tenure of office, immigrants of a better class were being attracted to the Colony in considerable numbers, and explorers such as Oxley, Hume, Hovell, Allan Cunningham, and Captain Currie, added much to the knowledge of the country. Governor Brisbane was recalled in 1825, owing to the discontent excited in the minds of the Colonists by his general policy, and to the representations they made to the Home Government.

General Darling, the next Governor, took office in December, 1825, and almost at once became exceedingly unpopular. His rule was rendered extremely difficult by reason of the prevailing depression, and the long period of drought with which the Colony was visited. He soon managed to embroil himself with the press, which it is interesting to note was fast becoming able to make its voice heard in the infant Colony. On the other hand, a good deal of enterprise characterised his administration. The first attempt at colonising New Zealand was made in 1826, and in the following year some troops were sent to West Australia, and in 1829 Captain Short was sent to examine the river system of the country. A census of the inhabitants under the rule of Governor Darling was taken in 1828, the number being 36,598. Another military officer, Sir Richard Bourke, K.C.B.,

succeeded in 1831 to the Governorship. The land question was now coming well to the front, and one of General Bourke's first acts was the substitution of a system of sale of lands for the free grants hitherto in vogue.

"Former Governors had been empowered to grant portions of the unoccupied lands of the Colony to private persons under certain restrictions, which were so interpreted as to mean according to their own judgment, and without any limitation. But the Colony was now 'ripe' for the administration of its waste lands under another form, and Sir Richard Bourke was the first to inaugurate it—namely, by sale at public auction, the minimum price for country lands being 5*s.* per acre, that for town lands to be fixed by the Surveyor-General. Previous to Sir Richard Bourke's arrival, the assignment of convict servants to settlers had been a source of patronage to the Colonial Government; but Sir Richard established a code of regulations, not in any case to be departed from, under which convict servants could only be assigned to settlers according to the quantity of land they held, and the care they were prepared to take of the moral and spiritual welfare of those assigned to them. Sir Richard Bourke also saw very clearly that the Colony had out-grown the conditions of a mere penal settlement, and took the necessary steps for having the names of the emancipists—that class of persons who had either served their time, or whose sentences had been remitted—placed on the jury list of the Colony, both as a matter of right and of public policy. Nay, more, as the Imperial Government had expressed a desire that a considerable portion of the fund arising from the sale of the waste lands of the Colony, under the new system, should be devoted to immigration, Sir Richard Bourke did all in his power to promote it, but not without much opposition from the Legislative Council." * The Home Government affording him little support, he resigned in disgust, and left the Colony in December, 1837. Governor Bourke was a popular man throughout his career, and the Colonists testified their esteem for him by the erection of a public statue.

The new Governor was Sir George Gipps, who arrived early in 1838, and found the whole unsolved difficulty of land tenure staring him full in the face. His instructions, however, were concise, *viz.*, to carry out the Wakefield System, and he did it. The main features of this system were the abolition of land grants and the substitution of sales at a substantial price, the proceeds being devoted to the importation of labourers. The price of land was accordingly raised from 5*s.* to 12*s.* an acre, much to the dislike of the Colonists.

The legalisation of squatter runs was one of the leading features of Governor Gipps's tenure, accompanied as it was with the establishment of a border police for the protection of live-stock, the funds for the support of this force being provided by a small tax per head on all horses, cattle, and sheep.

In 1842 steps were taken to provide a constitution for the Colony, and on New Year's Day, 1843, the Act giving effect to the wishes of the Colonists came into force. It provided for the establishment of a Council, to consist of 36 members, of whom 24 were to be elected by the people, including six members for Port Phillip; and of the remainder, six were to be Government officers, and the other six Crown nominees. This year was also remarkable for the financial crisis which occurred, led by the

* Allen's 'History of Australia,' p. 33.

failure of the Bank of Australia, and great distress prevailed among the artisan section of the population.

Another notable incident of this period was the discovery of a method of boiling down sheep for their tallow, discovered by Henry O'Brien of Yass, by which means a remedy was provided for the ruinous price to which the market value of the carcass had fallen. It may be noted too, that the Port Philip district was gradually rising in importance; Melbourne had grown to a big city, and an agitation was being actively carried on for the separation of this district from New South Wales.

Sir George Gipps left the Colony in July, 1846. His character has thus been described by a recent historian. "Able and bold, Sir George Gipps never shrunk from enforcing what in his self-confidence he thought to be right. An officer of the Royal Engineer Corps, he had seen service in the Peninsular war. Capable of thought, vigorous of speech, and incisive with his pen, he had served in a civil capacity as a Commissioner in Canada to inquire into grievances. Apt in diplomacy, he yet lacked the wariness of refraining from a clever saying not essential to the matter. Seeing the goal, he was imperious in driving others towards it, forgetful that all human creatures will not move in the same manner, and that many are more easily led than driven. Thus he occasionally steered upon a rock which a more discreet navigator would have avoided with little loss of time, and much gain of peace and reputation. Pure in moral character, he claimed no praise from the good; scorning a want of principle, he would stoop to no device to obtain that of the bad. He was unfamiliar with the arts which politicians practice to obtain support, and to pave the way for their measures in countries where representative institutions are moulded by public opinion. In time of trouble he might, as dictator, have earned that praise which he would not stoop to make his object. In carping times of criticism he offended the spirit to which he would not yield, but which he might have weakened or neutralised by politic courses without any sacrifice of principle."*

Sir Charles Fitzroy, the tenth Governor, assumed office on the 2nd of August, 1846. He does not seem to have been considered by the Colonists as endowed with great capacity for ruling, yet during his eight years of office some good progress was made. A new Constitution, hereafter referred to, was now introduced; railways were begun, gold was found in the Colony, the alpaca was introduced from Peru, a university founded at Sydney, and a branch mint started in the same city. On the other hand, the growing discontent of the Port Phillip district culminated in 1851 in its erection into a new colony under the name of Victoria.

During the last thirty years there has been a steady, though not uninterrupted advance to prosperity; but few events of very stirring interest have occurred, beyond the separation of another Australian Colony from the jurisdiction of New South Wales, in the shape of Moreton Bay, which was the next settlement to follow the example of Port Phillip, and was constituted a separate colony on the 18th of December, 1859, with the style and title of Queensland.

Sir William Denison was the first Governor under the new Constitution, held office from January, 1855, to 1861. All seems to have gone on

* Rusden's 'History of Australia,' vol. ii.

smoothly during his tenure, though a scare of Russian cruisers occasionally prevailed during the closing period of the Crimean War. Some heavy floods occurred too, which did great damage to life and property.

Sir John Young's *régime* from 1861 to 1867 was also marked by general prosperity; large tracts of land were brought under cultivation, and there was a notable increase in the production of wool, while the yield of gold amounted to a million annually.

The Earl of Belmore arrived as Governor on the 1st of January, 1868, and left the Colony four years later. In this period a zigzag railway was successfully carried over the Blue Mountains, and a sensational incident occurred in the attempted assassination of the Duke of Edinburgh, who was visiting the Colony at the time.

Sir Hercules Robinson succeeded Lord Belmore in June, 1872, and was one of the most popular Governors of the Colony. The most noteworthy incident of his rule was the annexation of the Fiji Islands. Several severe political crises occurred during the seven years of his governorship, but they were met successfully and managed with rare tact and statesmanlike ability by Sir Hercules. He left the Colony in March, 1879, amid universal expressions of regret.

Lord Augustus Loftus, who took office in August, 1879, was succeeded, in February, 1886, by Lord Carrington, whose urbanity and popularity in England have already commended themselves in a very marked degree to our Australian kinsmen. In summarising this brief reference to the successive Governors of the Colony, and the influence they have had in its development, we may well adopt the words of a Colonial writer on this subject. In referring to the conspicuous figures in the colonization of the mother colony in the great group of Australasian Colonies, he refers to the foresight, wisdom, patriotism, and enterprise of certain of the more distinguished pioneers of civilisation, and states that, "in the establishment of law and authority, and in laying wide and deep the foundations of an administrative system which was destined at no distant date to develop into perfect correspondence with British institutions, the Colonies are under the deepest obligations to the three first administrators of the Government —Captain Arthur Phillip, Captain John Hunter and Captain Philip Gidley King. By those distinguished officers, placed in the midst of difficulties which it is as hard at this distance of time to appreciate as it was for their contemporaries to forecast the splendid future of the Colonies, the way was cleared for the introduction, with the material growth of the community, of those institutions which have promoted its prosperity, furthered its interests, and given security to their enjoyment. The intelligence and enterprise of Captain John Macarthur established—by the introduction of merino sheep and of the vine—two forms of national wealth which have contributed so largely to the public prosperity. To Governor Lachlan Macquarie belongs the distinction of having been the first to initiate the exploration of the interior beyond the Blue Mountains, to form highways, and to erect hospitals and public buildings wherever settlement extended itself. To Sir Richard Bourke may be justly attributed the statesmanlike provision for securing religious equality at a time when the enjoyment of this right was imperfectly appreciated in otherwise highly civilised communities. To William Charles Wentworth, a figure as prominent and distinguished as any in the whole range of Imperial colonisation, is to be ascribed the two

great works of establishing constitutional government in its complete form, and of providing for higher education by founding the University of Sydney."

The climate of New South Wales is an exceptionally healthy one, and resembles in its main features that of South Italy, although from the greater extent of the Colony's surface the variations are much greater than is the case with its European compeer. The seasons are of course in nearly exactly opposite months to those at home, Christmas falling in the middle of summer, and Easter in the autumn, while Midsummer Day as the 24th of June, has to be banished from the Australian calendar. The mean heat of summer is about 80°, but this is greatly tempered, in lands near the coast, by the refreshing sea-breezes which, blowing from the early forenoon till evening, then give place to a gentle inland breeze. Hoar-frost occurs in the depth of winter, and snow more rarely—at least in the lowland districts; on the hill ranges it is frequent. In the inland plains the heat is often intense, sometimes reaching 130° in the shade, and is over 100° during the greater part of the summer. On the other hand, at Kiandra, a small town situate in a hilly district some 300 miles south-west of Sydney, on a branch of the Snowy river, the cold is equally as severe, the mean annual temperature being only 46°, and the thermometer often going down to 5° Fahrenheit.

In considering Australia as a health resort, it will be a revelation to many who repair to the Mediterranean litoral to escape the severity of the English winter and the rigours of an English spring, to be told that, except during the period of the hot winds, in Australia there is a climate as enjoyable as that of Algiers, and without many of the disadvantages of that resort. "Climatologists differ as to the exceptional causes of the dryness and purity of the Australian air. Some ascribe it to the effect of a depressed and generally dry interior, others to the insular position, the great Southern Ocean, and the unimpeded courses of the trade-winds. Many causes no doubt concur.

"The amount of rainfall is not inconsiderable on the east coast and in the Cordillera. In Sydney the average is twice as much as in London. In Melbourne it equals that in London. But at uncertain periods drought afflicts the land. The streams disappear on their slow course to the interior; the herbage is burnt to a colour browner than stubble. Where cattle and sheep depend for water only on what they find at a natural stream or pool, even the dry stalks disappear in the neighbourhood. The weaker animals cannot travel to the food, becoming more distant daily by trampling and consumption, they sink in the mud at the edge of the diminishing water, and are too weak to struggle out of it. They die, and their unburied corpses taint the air. One great accession to the depasturing capacity of Australia has been brought about by dividing 'runs' with fences, and, by damming up water-courses or sinking wells, shortening the distance which live-stock traverse to obtain water.

"When the country is parched by drought, the setting in of a hot wind [illegible]smays the inhabitants. Meteorologists are still making and comparing [illegible]ervations to account for the violence of this phenomenon. To the sea-[illegible]on the Hunter, at Sydney, at South Australia, and yet more intensely [illegible]trast with the average temperature at Victoria, the hot winds sweep [illegible] blast like that of a furnace. A person suddenly leaving a sub-

stantially built, and therefore a cool house, can hardly believe that the scorching blast which salutes him is not caused by a neighbouring fire. Fortunately the hot winds are rare, occurring only in the summer, and then only for one, two, or at most three days; lulling at night, and raging again in the forenoon.

"In the interior, if a fire occurs simultaneously with a hot wind, and the growth of grass has been abundant in the spring, the devastation is as vast as it is rapid. The raging wind sweeps up the kindled grass, whirls it forward to set the fire-demon at work in countless fresh places, and amid the roar of the wind, the crackling of boughs and grass, the dense and lurid smoke, the settler sometimes vainly strives to save his homestead from the advancing flames."*

In such circumstances it is not to be wondered at that the study of meteorology forms an important part of the labours of the Government Observatory at Sydney, which, in addition to its astronomical work, pursues vigorously the study of the climatic conditions of the Colony, and publishes the results for the public benefit. The meteorological work includes all the observations necessary for the study of the climate, and the preparation of the usual statistics; and the instruments, self-recording, and of standard forms are most complete, and in regular work. From these and daily telegrams from ninety-five stations extending over Australia, from Perth to Cooktown, and all New Zealand and Tasmania, a daily weather map is published: of this, sufficient copies are printed to make volumes, which are sent to the principal meteorological observatories all over the world. Already these maps have afforded most important aid in studying the weather on the coasts. There are upwards of four hundred Government and private meteorological stations in New South Wales, which communicate their observations to the observatory; these are tabulated, and the majority published monthly, and all of them at the end of the year; the rain observations being made specially prominent by a map, showing at one view the rainfall over the Colony.

The present Constitution of the Colony was granted by the Act 18 & 19 Vict. cap. 54, and provides for the appointment of a Governor nominated by the Crown, and of two Houses of Parliament, the first or Legislative Council consisting of a limited number of members who are also nominated by the Crown, and hold office for life, and the second or Legislative Assembly, elected from the various constituencies. All natural-born subjects of Her Majesty over twenty-one years of age, who have been resident for six months in an electoral district in the Colony, are possessed of a vote, and aliens can also exercise this privilege if naturalised for five years, and resident in the Colony for two years before the election. The method of voting is by ballot, and the parliaments expire naturally at the end of three years. All persons qualified to vote are *ipso facto* qualified to become candidates for the Assembly. All Acts passed by the Legislature have to receive the assent of the Queen, as at home, and must be submitted through the Secretary of State for the Colonies, although they receive the provisional assent of the Governor as Viceroy. Imperial Acts of Parliament are in full force, unless rendered inoperative by an Act of the Colonial Parliament.

* Rusden's 'History of Australia,' vol. i. p. 72.

New South Wales has 46 municipal boroughs, and 45 municipal districts.

The administration of justice is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Courts of Quarter Sessions, and Courts of Petty Sessions. The Supreme Court has five Judges, one of whom is styled Chief Justice. There are also Courts for Divorce, Admiralty and Bankruptcy, the two first of which are presided over by Justices of the Supreme Court, and the last-named has a Special Commissioner. The inferior Courts do not differ materially from those at home, being modelled on the well-known principles which have influenced English jurists.

New South Wales is divided ecclesiastically into six dioceses, viz.: Sydney, Bathurst, Goulburn, Grafton and Armidale, Newcastle, and the new see of Riverina. Originally, in common with the rest of Australia, it formed part of the diocese of Calcutta, but in 1836 Archdeacon Broughton was consecrated Bishop of Australia. The growth of the Colony necessitating a further subdivision, Bishop Broughton's title was changed in 1847 to that of Bishop of Sydney and Metropolitan of Australia, but subject nevertheless to the archiepiscopal see of Canterbury. The diocese of Newcastle was founded in the same year. Goulburn was separated from Sydney in 1863, Grafton and Armidale from Newcastle in 1868, and in the following year Bathurst was created a separate diocese from portions of the two older sees. The see of Riverina owes its creation in a great measure to the munificence of a member of the Legislative Council, the Hon. John Campbell, who gave £10,000 towards the endowment.* The church is supported on what is known as the voluntary system, and its temporalities are controlled by the Synod and Church Society in each diocese. The method of administering ecclesiastical patronage generally may be gathered by referring to the Sydney diocese only. Of the 79 parishes into which this see is divided, the patronage of 48 is vested in the bishop, and the remaining 31 in a "Board of Nominators" composed of two representatives of the Synod, and three others elected by the parishioners.

Sydney, as the metropolitical city, is the meeting-place of the Australian Convocation or "General Synod," which meets every fifth year, and is composed of the bishops of the several dioceses in Australia and Tasmania, and clerical and lay representatives of each Synod. The present Bishop of Sydney and Primate of Australia and Tasmania is the distinguished scholar and theologian so well known in London as Principal for many years of King's College, the Most Rev. Dr. Alfred Barry.

The Roman Catholic Church is governed by a Cardinal Archbishop and several suffragan bishops, and is of course also under the voluntary system, as are the numerous bodies of Nonconformists.

The following table shows the strength of the various religious denominations in the Colony at the census in 1881:

Church of England . . .	342,359	Jews	3,266
Roman Catholics . . .	207,020	Other denominations . .	59,884
Presbyterians	72,545	Pagans	9,345
Wesleyans	57,049		

It is not proposed in this Handbook to give anything like an historical

* While these pages were passing through the press, it was announced that Mr. Campbell's beneficent life had been brought to a close.

sketch of education in the Australian colonies, and it may therefore be briefly stated that, in 1880, an Education Act was passed by the Legislature of New South Wales, upon the lines of the English Elementary Education Act of 1870; and as some acquaintance with the main provisions of the last-named Act is presumed, it will be sufficient in this place to indicate wherein the New South Wales Act of 1880 differs. In the first place it is not purely an Elementary Education Act, but provides for intermediate and higher instruction; in the second, there is an increase in the maximum limit of age for compulsory attendance, *i.e.*, up to the age of 14; and the Act further provides for itinerant teachers—a very important feature in a land with such a scattered population; and in connection with this it should be mentioned that free railway passes are granted to children whenever they are compelled to attend schools at a distance. Again, evening schools for adults whose education has been neglected is provided for by the Act. The entire expense of the system, except the small fee of 3*d.* per week, is defrayed from the Consolidated Revenue, and not from a District Rate. Religious instruction may be given in the schools by appointed teachers of any denomination during a certain hour of the school-time.

Intermediate education is also provided for both boys and girls, at which instruction is given in classics, modern languages and literature, mathematics and natural science in the former case; in the latter the classics are omitted, and a lower range of mathematics is adopted, music being added to the course.

The Colony has one university, that of Sydney. The University of Sydney was established owing to the public spirited exertions of Mr. W. C. Wentworth, and endowed in 1851. Its annual income from public funds is £5,000, which is largely added to by special votes and private donations, of which may be noted the bequest by Mr. Challis of £180,000. It has the power of granting degrees in arts, law, medicine, and science. Recently several faculties have been added to its curriculum. Graduates are entitled to the same rank, style, and precedence as those of universities within the United Kingdom. The Sydney University has several theological colleges affiliated to it, viz.:—St. Paul's College (Church of England), St. John's (Roman Catholic), and St. Andrew's (Presbyterian). In the metropolis there is a public grammar school and a technical college for working men, and in the country towns over a hundred mechanics' schools of art. There are also a royal society, a medical, a Linnæan and an art society, with many other educational associations of a like character.

The New South Wales Government have just initiated a system of technical education, based largely upon that represented by the English Department of Science and Art. Technical education was commenced in Sydney in 1874. The members of the Sydney School of Arts established a Working Men's College. This was subsidised by the Government, and in 1878 Parliament granted £2,000 towards its further development. For the following five years the college was carried on in connection with the School of Arts with considerable success. In 1883 a State system of technical education, under the management of a Board, was instituted, and the Working Men's College was taken over by the Government.

The Board of Technical Education follows out the principle laid down by the City of London Guilds for their own guidance, and resolved that the

object of technical instruction in the Colony would be to improve the industrial knowledge by teaching the sciences and principles underlying their handicrafts, and that such teaching should be illustrated by the best apparatus and machines that could be obtained, and by visits to workshops, manufactories, &c. Over fifty classes are in operation, and a large block of buildings leased for the use of the Working Men's College. A student passing through the required courses in any department, and producing satisfactory certificates for such class, is granted a certificate as "Industrial Expert."

Recognising the vast importance of the subject, Parliament has been liberal, and sums varying from £20,000 to £25,000 yearly have been readily granted. Altogether technical instruction is progressing most successfully. It has been founded on a proper and well tried basis, and before long will radiate from Sydney throughout the entire Colony.

The first International Exhibition held in Australasia was opened in Sydney by Lord Augustus Loftus, then Governor, on the 17th September, 1879. The success attending this Exhibition proves that the people of New South Wales are highly energetic and capable of carrying out great national undertakings with vigour and success. The Exhibition building, appropriately named the "Garden Palace," was erected on an elevated spot in the Inner Domain, overlooking the Botanic Gardens—a site in every way suitable and convenient, interesting in its historical associations, and inexpressibly charming in all its surroundings. The Garden Palace, with its graceful dome and symmetrical proportions, formed a prominent and pleasing feature in the view, whether seen from the harbour, or from the numerous points about its shores. The art displayed in the interior decorations of the building, the large collection of various exhibits, together with their tasteful and instructive arrangement, combined to attract large crowds of visitors from the opening to the closing day. The Exhibition closed on the 20th April, 1880.

The Fine Art Gallery of New South Wales is a kindred institution to the English National Gallery, and already there has been got together an excellent and somewhat extensive collection of paintings, drawings, and sculpture; to these Exhibitions the admission is free.

The Colony enjoys great facilities for trade and shipping, and its people have not been slow to take advantage of its position with regard to them. The principal export trade is with the United Kingdom and the Australasian colonies, that with foreign countries being comparatively unimportant. The staple exports are wool and metals; the frozen meat trade is also advancing to a vigorous growth. Wine is exported in considerable quantities, as is also tobacco. The imports are principally cotton and iron goods, and the majority of these originate from the United Kingdom. Both imports and exports show a satisfactory increase.

The home industries of New South Wales will be best understood from the following statement for the year 1884, furnished by the Registrar-General of the Colony: "Manufactories and works connected with or dependent on agriculture, 204 establishments, employing 2,777 hands; working on raw material the production of the pastoral interest, 307 establishments, employing 2,937 hands; manufacture of food of which the raw material is not the produce of agriculture, and of articles of drink, &c., 307 establishments, employing 2,379 hands; building materials and plastic manufactories, 939

establishments, employing 6,659 hands; machine manufactories, brass, lead, and iron works, 215 establishments, employing 3,335 hands; miscellaneous works and manufactories, 1,139 establishments, employing 15,112 hands. At the close of the year 1883 there were in operation in New South Wales 154 mills for grinding and dressing grain, employing 2,847 horse-power, 390 pair of stones, and 685 hands."

The tariffs of New South Wales may generally be said to be levied on articles of which the import could be dispensed with, and consequently they do not seriously affect the English market. Farm produce and the wares of the grocer and oilman seem to be the main objects. Timber, again, whether raw or manufactured, is subject to a considerable impost. Beer and spirits are likewise taxed, though not excessively. There are, however, a few notable exceptions which cannot be said to be so innocuous to our home manufacturers. The heavy duty of *forty shillings a ton* on galvanized iron, or any galvanized manufactures, is a case in point. How far this is consistent with the interest of the Colony, it would be out of place here to inquire. A tariff of the same amount is levied on nails, and iron wire is charged one pound a ton. Paints, too, are subject to a duty of forty shillings a ton—why, it is difficult to conjecture, and the same amount is charged on cordage; and soda crystals, salt, and saltpetre are liable to a duty of twenty shillings a ton.

New South Wales is famous for its pastoral capabilities and its other agricultural resources; these, though not so prominent as its enormous wealth of sheep and horned cattle, are very important, and capable of practically indefinite extension.

The Agent-General informs us that "probably no other country in the world has such resources, or can show such progress in pastoral enterprise, as New South Wales. Natural pastures exist all over the Colony, but especially in the western districts, where many varieties of the best fattening grasses, herbage, and salt-bush flourish in the virgin soil. The pastoral holdings are constantly increasing in value, and very remunerative prices are being obtained for wool and live stock. The total area leased for pastoral purposes in 1883 is returned at 229,320 square miles, the rent being £325,128. There were 4,329 pastoral runs in 1883, some of them over 300,000 acres in extent. There are many men in the Colony who, beginning life as shepherds, have realised wealth and affluence, and thousands have made competent incomes; while several of the "squatters," developed into landed proprietors, possess more than 100,000 sheep depastured on their own freehold estates.

The main object with which these vast flocks of sheep are kept up is the production of wool, their flesh until lately being of comparatively little value. The number of bales of wool exported during the year ending 30th June, 1884, was 319,477, an increase over the previous year of over 50,000 bales, the declared value being 9½ millions sterling.

The pastoral interest is greatly on the increase, as will be seen from a comparison of the number of sheep in the Colony during twenty years previous to 1883. In the last-named year they numbered over 34 millions as against 18 millions in 1873, and 7 millions in 1863. The climate of the Colony is most favourable for the shepherd's calling, as no winter shelter is necessary, nor has artificial fodder to be provided during that season. Severe droughts, however, occasionally occur, causing immense losses to

the owner, and intense suffering and a cruel and lingering death to the animals.

The breeds of sheep most in request are naturally those having the finest and heaviest fleeces of wool. In the early days of the Colony the ordinary breeds of sheep from England were the only ones introduced, but Captain McArthur imported some merinos which throve so well that ever since this breed has occupied the leading place. The average weight of 33 ram lamb fleeces, shorn at Coonorg in 1884, was only one ounce under 14 pounds, those of 29 mature rams averaged 15¼ pounds, the average of 57 ewes being slightly over 12 pounds. After the merinos the home long-woolled breeds are in request, the Lincolnshire being the favourite.

The number of horned cattle in the Colony is much less than that of sheep, and their numbers seem to be on the decrease, for the statistics to hand give the total in 1861 as over 2¼ millions, in 1871 it had fallen to just over 2 millions, and in 1881 to 2·18 millions. There is a serious falling off again in 1884, the number being returned at 1·4 millions only, the explanation being the severe drought experienced between those dates. The following table of the breeds which find favour with our fellow-subjects will be interesting as showing how much in harmony their ideas are with the practice at home, and as an illustration of the suitability of the climate for the various English breeds, and it will further be noticed how boldly the ubiquitous shorthorn comes to the front in point of numbers:

Description.	Pure.	Crossed with		
		Hereford.	Devon.	Blackpolled.
Shorthorn . .	796,560	405,847	65,439	152
Hereford . .	150,386	..	30,140	..
Devon . . .	12,348	..	..	..
Ayrshire . .	1,559	..	..	..
"Blackpolled" .	573	..	..	..
Channel Island Cattle	473	..	..	..

The number of horses in the Colony in 1884 was 316,915, a decrease of over 10,000 on the previous year, a falling off which is explained by the severe drought. All breeds of horses thrive exceedingly well, and India draws largely from New South Wales for remounts for her cavalry regiments. The number of swine in the Colony in 1883 was 189,000. The totals of this class of live stock vary so arbitrarily that it would be of no advantage to compare the figures.

Coming now to the question of cereals, it may be sufficient to point out that the ordinary grain crops are largely cultivated, and that in addition there are such products as maize, sorghum and imphee. The average yield of wheat in 1883–4 was 15 bushels per acre.

The following further particulars extracted from the Agent-General's valuable manual will no doubt interest the English reader.

"Tobacco is grown chiefly in the northern coast districts and in the south west. The quantity produced has varied considerably from year to year. The yield for 1883–4 is returned as 20,000 cwts.

"Maize is raised throughout the coast districts as far south as the 36th parallel of latitude. The cultivation is easy and the crop is soon ready.

A failure of it is rarely known. The yield on the richer descriptions of land has been 80 and 100 bushels an acre for the first crop, and 65 bushels an acre afterwards. The average on the whole crop of the Colony in 1881 was 22 bushels an acre. Large quantities are annually exported. In 1883–4, 123,634 acres gave 4,538,604 bushels.

"The potato grows well, and the yield is large. Barley, oats, &c., are grown chiefly for fodder. Lucerne hay may be cut from four to six times in the year in favourable seasons on the alluvial flats on the River Hunter. Mangold-wurzel, turnips and pumpkins are used for the artificial feeding of the choicest cattle, but the native grasses are quite sufficient for ordinary fattening purposes. Arrowroot thrives; cotton succeeds well on the northern rivers. The bark of several indigenous acacias is used for tanning purposes. The eucalypti and other native trees have valuable medicinal properties. The bœhmeria, commonly known as the rhea (or grass-cloth plant of China), and the New Zealand flax are grown easily. The mulberry-tree thrives, and the finest varieties of the silkworm have been introduced with success.

"Sugar-cane is now cultivated to a large extent, and the acreage under cane increases largely year after year. In 1883–4 there were about fifteen thousand acres under tillage, of which 7,583 acres produced 1,818,325 cwts. of sugar. The sugar-growing districts are on the northern rivers. The sorghum or imphee, which has so much saccharine matter, thrives well.

"The cultivation of the vine is fast becoming a leading industry in the Colony. There are districts of sufficient area, and combining the necessary conditions of soil, climate, and aspect to produce *wine enough to supply the whole of the world.* The vine was introduced by Mr. John Macarthur about 1820, and in 1831 Mr. Busby made a voyage to Europe, and brought out a valuable collection of plants from France and from the Rhine. This was really the parent stock of the vine in New South Wales. Wine-growing is an industry that requires time to bring it to perfection, but Australian wines are stated by connoisseurs to be rapidly improving in quality. Exhibiting abroad, under many disadvantages, colonial *vignerons* have won high distinction at all the late International Exhibitions—especially at that recently held at Bordeaux. The judges of wine at the late Sydney International Exhibition, consisting of representatives from every wine-producing country in the world, recorded a unanimous opinion to the effect that Australian wines are on the whole excellent in quality, and destined to enter into successful competition in the markets of Europe. One of the judges compared the Valleys of the Hunter and the Paterson with those of the Gironde and the Garonne, from which the best French wines are obtained, stating that as the climate and soil of the former are both favourable to wine production, the wines made in the Colony will every year become more like the celebrated vintages of France. The yield of wine has averaged from 100 gallons to 700 gallons per acre, though certain kinds of grapes have produced over 1,000 gallons per acre. The area of land occupied by vines in 1883 was 4,378 acres; the quantity of wine produced being 589,604 gallons, of brandy 4,162 gallons, and of grapes for table use the quantity picked was 1,378 tons.

"All the fruits of Europe are grown with success. The orange is cultivated most extensively, the area so planted being 7,268 acres in 1883, while the fruit gathered amounted to 8,102,658 dozens. As many

as 10,000 oranges have been obtained from individual trees. Oranges are largely exported to the neighbouring colonies, and many proprietors of orangeries who began life in a very small way have realised a fortune. The olive, caper, fig, strawberry, raspberry, gooseberry, currant, custard-apple, guava, banana, areca-nut, almond, passion-fruit, loquat, quince-plum, nectarine, pear, apple, and peach, all thrive. Gardens and orchards covered in 1883 an area of 17,455 acres. Fruit is cheap, and is consumed in large quantities by all classes.

"Almost every description of garden flower grown in the United Kingdom is found luxuriantly thriving during the greater part of the year in New South Wales. Violets, pansies, wall-flowers, sweet williams, mignonette, lupins, balsams, roses, convolvulus, nasturtiums, candytuft, golden feather, and other popular garden flowers, are to be met with in every direction. The camellia grows to large-sized trees covered with beautiful blossoms; the geranium attains a large size, presenting a bushy appearance, and flowering the greater part of the year. In the northern districts the sweetbriar is regarded as a troublesome weed, which it is difficult to eradicate from the soil. It is the same with the cactus, which has overrun thousands of acres of fertile land. The rare luxuriance in the flower-garden in New South Wales furnishes a convincing proof of the wonderful fertility of the earth, which seems capable of growing almost every description of vegetable produce."

The food resources of New South Wales are superabundant for the population, and need not be enlarged upon. The Colony is able to export large quantities of corn and meat, and has only need to import as food adjuncts a few of the wares sold in grocers' shops.

New South Wales is highly favoured with magnificent forests, containing immense quantities and many descriptions of valuable woods. The important properties of the majority of these timbers are becoming better known every day. Many kinds are found to be suitable for ship-building, house-building, and cabinet-making purposes.

The vegetation of New South Wales is noticeable for the large number of distinct species it contains, and for their dissimilarity from the species of other countries. There exist about 10,000 species of flowering plants in Australia, being more than is contained in the whole of Europe. Many of these plants are highly organised, and yet capable of resisting great extremes of heat and cold. Some of the noble eucalyptus trees, with their peculiar vertical branches and evergreen leaves, reach to the height of 120 feet, with a girth of from 12 to 20 feet. The highest tree in the world, 480 feet, was discovered in Australia, and several trees are now to be seen over 420 feet high. There are about 300 different species of acacias or wattles, with fragrant blossoms. One exhibitor at the Sydney International Exhibition showed 867 varieties of seeds of trees, shrubs, &c., indigenous to Australia. The director of the Sydney Botanic Gardens states, "No country has been favoured by Nature with a greater variety and abundance of trees yielding strong, beautiful, and durable timbers than the colony of New South Wales."

The indigenous flora and fauna of New South Wales excite much attention in scientific circles, owing to many of the species being quite different from those found in other parts of the world. An eminent naturalist has reckoned that there are 690 distinct species of birds in

Australia, being more than the number found in Europe, and nearly as many as inhabit and visit North America. Scientists have experienced difficulty in classifying several of the Australian animals, and the species to which some of them belong were thought by geologists to be long ago extinct. The *Ceratodus Forsterii*, remarkable for its affinity to the reptile and the fish species, and the Port Jackson shark with its tesselated teeth, are now often sought after as scientific curiosities by foreign naturalists.

The continent of Australia in its original state was generally destitute of most of the fauna to which the colonists were accustomed at home, and attempts have been made with great success to introduce many of our own animals. Of these it will be sufficient to instance deer (of several kinds), the hare and the rabbit among the wild animals—the usual domestic animals having been long previously introduced as a necessity. The rabbit has become a serious pest, and is poisoned wholesale as vermin. The Government expends a very large amount annually in destroying the rabbits. Pheasants and other game birds have been set free, and the woods and hedgerows have been peopled with many of our common woodland songsters. Freshwater fish have also been acclimatised, and are doing well; but the experiment of acclimatising salmon has not yet had time to develop into results.*

The principal species of New South Wales fish are, the bream, mullet, whiting, schnapper, jewfish, kingfish, taraglin, salmon, mackerel, flathead, and garfish.

With reference to the system of land tenure, it may be remarked that formerly persons taking up land for the purpose of settlement had to pay a deposit of 5*s.* per acre, and an annual payment of 1*s.* per acre until the balance of 15*s.* was paid with interest at the rate of 5%, making the total of 20*s.* per acre and 5% added; but by recent legislation (Crown Lands Act, 1884) the deposit is reduced to 2*s.* per acre, with similar conditions to the old Act for the payment of the balance of principal and interest, with stipulations as to improvement and residence, so as to establish the *bona fides* of persons taking the land for the purpose of residence or cultivation. There are also provisions for acquiring land for pastoral leases, occupation licenses, homestead leases, annual leases for pastoral purposes, and special leases. In the short space at command in this Handbook it is impossible to set forth the varied conditions under which the above named can be obtained; but full information can be procured by application to the Agent-General for New South Wales, 5 Westminster Chambers, Westminster.

The aboriginal natives have been gradually giving way before the march of European settlement. Efforts have frequently been made, more especially of late years, by the Government and by private individuals, to ameliorate their condition; but it is found impossible to turn them from their nomadic habits, their instincts leading them to seek subsistence as hunters rather than in agriculture or any other settled pursuit. An association has recently been formed, having for its object the improvement of the moral and physical condition of the aborigines, and to check the tendency to drunkeness, which unfortunately exists among them.

* Full particulars concerning this, as well as an account of the edible fishes of New South Wales will be found in an admirable paper by Mr. Ramsay in vol. v. p. 303, of the Literature of the International Fisheries Exhibition.

The following particulars with regard to the railways and shipping of the Colony are culled from those official sources to which we have been so much indebted in the preparation of this paper. The first railway in New South Wales was that from Sydney to Parramatta (Cumberland), which was opened for traffic on the 26th of September, 1855, just twenty-five years after the opening of the first railway in England, that from Liverpool to Manchester, on the 16th of September, 1830. The line was constructed by a private company, as was that from Newcastle to Maitland (Northumberland), which was formed about the same time. Circumstances, however, led to the two railways being transferred to the New South Wales Government, in whose hands the whole railway system of the Colony, with one slight exception, has since remained. It is at present divided into two great divisions, the Northern, having its terminus at Newcastle, and the Southern Western, having its terminus at Sydney. The two are, however, to be connected by a line now in process of construction, which will establish railway communication between Newcastle and Sydney. The Northern line runs from Newcastle to Glen Innes (Gough County), a distance of 298 miles, and is being extended to Tenterfield, on the Queensland border, a distance of 16 miles further. The South-Western system consists of two main lines, the Southern and the Western. The first runs from Sydney to Albury (Goulburn County), a distance of 386 miles, where it joins the Victorian system, enabling passengers to proceed without unnecessary loss of time, to Melbourne. The Western system runs from Sydney to Bye Rock, distant 455 miles from Sydney, whence it is being continued another 58 miles to Bourke (Cowper County), thereby opening up the whole of the great pastoral regions of the north-west. There are various branch lines on each of the three main railways, and others are in course of construction. The completed lines are among the most substantial in the world, several of the iron bridges spanning the rivers and creeks being very costly structures. The two remarkable triumphs of engineering skill, known as the Zigzag and the Great Zigzag, by which the lofty heights of the Blue Mountain Range are ascended and descended, form two of the leading sights of the Colony. The locomotives are most powerful, and the finest make of English builders; the carriages, which are constructed chiefly on the American principle, being mostly built in the Colony. Sleeping cars are attached to the trains running long distances. The railway stations are numerous, and generally substantially constructed of stone or brick, strongly resembling those on the Midland railway between Derby and London, the platforms being long and spacious. The total amount spent on the construction of the various lines up to the end of 1884 was £22,053,256. The railway earnings during 1884 amounted to £2,086,237, while the working expenses were £1,301,259, leaving a net profit of £784,978. At the close of the same year 27½ miles of city and suburban tramways were open, the capital cost being £683,179. The number of passengers carried during 1884 was 30,231,382. During 1884 the tramway coaching receipts were £219,942, and the expenditure £215,167. In addition to the city and suburban tramways, a tram has been laid down between Campbelltown (Cumberland), a station on the main Southern Railway, and Camden (Camden County), a distance of 8 miles, as an experimental feeder to the main line.

The maritime trade of the Colony is showing a steady development.

It appears that the total number of vessels entered inwards for the year 1884 was 2,935, with a tonnage of 2,284,517; while outwards the figures were—vessels, 3,010, tonnage, 2,376,441; making a total of 5,945 vessels and 4,660,958 tonnage, as against 5,361 vessels with 4,006,237 tonnage for 1883; while the return of the vessels "built and registered" in the Colony, shows a corresponding increase—161 vessels with 22,334 tonnage for 1884, against 155 vessels of 19,972 tonnage in 1883.

Next to its pastoral resources, the minerals of New South Wales are its main source of wealth. Gold and the metals used in the arts are found in abundance, and silver to a lesser extent. Coal, too, is found in great quantities, and of good quality; and among the minor minerals we may mention asbestos and porphyry. A short notice of each of the metals and minerals found in sufficient quantities to render them important may now be given.

Gold.—The existence of gold in the Colony was first discovered in 1839 by Count Paul Strzlecki in the Wellington district, and in 1841 and 1844 the Rev. W. B. Clarke gave it as his opinion that gold in considerable quantities would be found in the Colony. In the last-named year Sir Roderick Murchison confirmed this opinion, and brought forward an unanswerable array of argument to prove its existence in abundance in certain districts of Australia. Four years after this "the gold discoveries in California induced Mr. Edward Hammond Hargreaves to migrate there from New South Wales. Struck with the similarity of its geological formation to that of Bathurst, he returned to New South Wales in 1851, and on the 12th of February discovered gold at Lewis Pond's Creek, near Bathurst, and made its existence known to the world, thus gaining for himself the fame of being the first practical discoverer of the precious metal in the Colony."

This discovery very shortly threw the whole social system of the Colony out of gear; a perfect exodus took place from the agricultural regions, an enormous increase in the wealth of the Colony was the consequence of the discovery, and a correspondingly great increase took place in the price of provisions.

"The gold-fields extend with short intervals throughout the entire length of the Colony. The approximate auriferous area as far as known is about 70,000 square miles. It is highly probable that rich and extensive gold-fields will be discovered for many years to come. There are immense tracts in the interior which have not yet been prospected. Except in some few localities, quartz veins have not been worked to a great depth. Alluvial lands have in some instances been worked to a depth of 200 feet, and there are the strongest indications of deep leads in various parts where no attempt has yet been made to work them. Gold-mining, as hitherto carried on, has been principally confined to the working of river beds and shallow alluvial claims. Extensive areas of country are known to be auriferous, and it is believed that there will be ample scope for the remunerative employment of a large population in both alluvial and quartz-mining. The poor success which has often attended the working of quartz veins is largely attributable to ill-judged speculation, inexperience, and the absence of proper ore-separating and other mining appliances. The Government Geological Surveyors, in their reports to the Minister for Mines, indicate promising localities for the gold prospector in the northern,

western, and southern districts of the Colony. The approximate area included within the proclaimed gold-fields is 35,500 square miles; but from the geological formation of the country, it is believed that the area within which payable gold deposits will be found will be greater than that now stated. From some of the reefs at Hill End (Wellington County), crushings gave at the rate of from 30 to 2,100 ounces of gold per ton. It is known that much gold passes away in the tailings, and is lost in consequence of the imperfect appliances at present employed for the treatment of auriferous pyrites.

"The weight of gold raised in New South Wales between 1851 and 1883 was estimated at 9,489,454 ozs., valued at over 35 millions sterling. The yield in 1884 was about 105 thousand ozs., *i.e.*, that quantity was received into the Royal Mint, Sydney. During the twenty-seven years ending with 1883, there were received at the Sydney Mint for coinage 13,633,504 ozs. of gold, valued at just about 52 millions sterling.

Silver.—Within the last few months very rich and valuable veins of silver have been found in two localities widely separated from each other. The one at Sunny Corner and Mitchell's Creek, about 100 (?) miles from Sydney, the other at Silverton in the Barrier Ranges, which separate New South Wales and South Australia, a place somewhat inaccessible; but the wonderful value of the silver ore obtained, and the great extent of similar country which exists, will ensure its speedy development, and already a company has undertaken the construction of a light railway from Silverton to the borders of South Australia, where it will effect a junction with the Government railways of that Colony, and thus reduce the enormous cost which now obtains of carrying food, forage and material to the silver mines, and of bringing to the port of shipment the large quantities of silver ore which now await means of transit, or which may hereafter be mined.

Tin.—The existence of this metal was made known by the Rev. W. B. Clarke in 1852, a year after the discovery of gold, and its production now exceeds in value that of the latter metal. The quality of it is not in any way inferior to that from the Straits Settlements, and its development during the last decade is very large. In 1871 the quantity raised was 896 tons, while in 1884 it had increased to 6,665 tons. The stanniferous area of the Colony is estimated at 5½ million acres. Great progress, too, is made in the smelting of tin ore.

Copper.—Copper is found in considerable quantities, and the copper-producing area covers 4¼ million acres. It is thought, moreover, that this large area will be increased by subsequent exploration. A satisfactory feature of the mining for this metal is the large size of the lodes, and the high percentage of copper obtained from them. The output in 1872 was 1,452 tons only; in 1883, 6,442 tons.

Iron.—This important metal occurs in many districts, its ores being often found in combination with other minerals. The principal ore is hæmatite. The deposits, which are often very large, occur in widely separated districts.

Antimony.—Antimony ores have been found in numerous parts of New South Wales; the principal lodes occur in the Macleay, Armidale, Clarence, and Cudgegong districts. Those on the Munga Creek, near the Macleay River, traverse sedimentary rock of the Devonian age. The ore consists of oxide and sulphide of antimony, and occurs in irregular bunches, occasion-

ally of a considerable size, enclosed in a quartz matrix, which forms the chief constituent of the lodes. One of the lodes near Armidale (Sandon County) contains free gold plainly visible to the naked eye. Until recently the colonial antimony ores have been quite neglected, but during the last two or three years some of the lodes have been worked, especially in the Macleay and Armidale districts; and there is reason to believe that the output of this mineral will largely increase. The quantity and value of antimony exported from Sydney to the end of 1883 was 2,591 tons, value £51,463.

Lead ores, chiefly galena, are found in paying quantities in several districts.

Cinnabar ore, the sulphuret of mercury, is found in the Mudgee district. Bismuth ores have been found in the tin-bearing drifts of New South Wales, and also in lodes.

Zinc ores are also found, but the production is not important.

Precious Stones. Diamonds have been found in various parts of the Colony. The number of diamonds found in New South Wales up to the end of 1880 was estimated at 10,000, the largest being one of $5\frac{5}{8}$ carats, or 16·2 grains. Diamonds are known to exist in considerable quantities in various parts of Australia. In New South Wales they were discovered so far back as 1851, but little notice was taken of the fact. In 1867 numerous diamonds were found by gold-diggers in the Mudgee district, and in 1869 diamond working was commenced in a systematic manner. The richest finds of diamonds have, however, been at Bingera, where during the last ten years many hundreds have been discovered. In 1884, at Doctor's Creek, Bingera, alone, the Australian Diamond Mining Company obtained 1,193 diamonds, weighing 254 carats. The conditions under which the Bingera diamonds are obtained are much the same as the Mudgee, where the gems are procured from outliers of an old river-drift which had in parts been protected from denudation by a capping of hard compact basalt. This drift is made up mostly of boulders and pebbles of quartz, jasper, agate, quartzite, flinty slate, silicified wood, slate, sandstone, and abundance of coarse sand mixed with more or less clay. Diamonds are also found in other parts of the Colony. From the Borah tin-mine, situated at the junction of Cope's Creek with the Gwydir, 200 were obtained in a few months. Out of a batch of 86, the largest weighed 5·5 grains. Diamonds have been found on most of the alluvial tin workings at Cope's, Newstead, Vegetable, and Middle Creeks, also in the Stannifer, Ruby, and the Britannia tin-mines in the Tingha division, near the Big River, Auburn Vale, and in the Berrima district. In colour, the diamonds vary from colourless and transparent to various shades of straw-yellow, brown, light green, and black. A flattened diamond of a rich dark green has been found. The lustre of New South Wales diamonds is usually brilliant or adamantine, but occasionally they have a dull appearance. This want of lustre is not due to any coating of foreign matter, or to the same cause as the dullness of less hard and water-worn crystals, but it is due to the surface being covered with innumerable edges or angles belonging to the structure of the crystal. These reflect the light irregularly at all angles, and give the stone its frosted appearance.

Opals, rubies, and sapphires, as well as some other gems, are also found in the Colony.

Coal.—The following excerpt from the particulars furnished by the Agent-General will show to what extent this important mineral is now produced, and its influence on the manufacturing industries of the Colony. "The production of coal has increased very rapidly of late years. In 1863 328 tons were raised; whilst in 1884 the total output was 2,749,109 tons, valued at £1,303,077. There were 64 coal and shale mines in operation, employing 5,500 hands. The year's exports reached 1,690,763 tons, valued at £931,045. When it is remembered that the coal-fields of Great Britain only cover one-twentieth part of the area of the country, or about 4,000 miles, and that nevertheless the output of this mineral in the mother country is upwards of 120 million tons per annum, it would be difficult to over-estimate the magnitude of the proportions to which the coal trade of New South Wales may be expected to grow hereafter. In certain districts immense seams of coal are found in immediate juxtaposition with an abundance of iron ores, limestone, and fire-clay. Hence Nature seems to have indicated New South Wales as the great manufacturing Colony of the Australian group. The coal is of excellent quality for steam, household, smelting, and gas purposes; and the largest exports are to Victoria, Hong Kong, San Francisco, South Australia, Manilla, Japan, Valparaiso, Honolulu, India, Tasmania, New Zealand, and Queensland, more than 1,000 vessels being annually engaged in this traffic. The average price of the northern coal in 1884 was 9*s.* 10*d.* per ton; of the southern, 10*s.* 4*d.*; and western, 5*s.* 5*d.* per ton.

"The result of careful investigation is to prove that the coal from the northern coal-field of New South Wales is practically equal for all purposes to the best English coal, on an average of both, except that of South Wales, for the use of steamers; it has the advantage of giving a more perfect combustion with greater freedom from smoke. The coals of the southern coast district differ from those of the northern coal-field in having generally a duller appearance, higher specific gravity, more ash, and less volatile hydrocarbons—in which they approach more closely the Welsh steam coal. They are of the free-burning, bituminous description. The coals from the western district differ considerably from the others, and suffer much more from the action of the weather. They can be coked when fresh from the pit; but, after exposure, lose this property. These coals, from their general character and properties, are unlikely to be ever exported largely; but both these and numerous others not now worked, or worked in a small way only, are quite as well fitted for immediate local use as a great many coals worked in Great Britain, France, United States of America, and elsewhere, and are specially suitable for smelting purposes.

"A variety of cannel-coal commonly called 'kerosene shale,' similar to the once famous Boghead mineral of Scotland, but yielding a much larger percentage of volatile hydrocarbons than the Scotch Boghead, occurs in saucer-shaped deposits from a few inches to 5 feet thick. The richest quality yields upwards of 150 gallons of crude oil per ton, or 18,000 cubic feet of gas, with an illuminating power of thirty-eight to forty-eight sperm candles, and on this account it is found advantageous for mixing with ordinary coal in the manufacture of gas, and is largely exported to Great Britain, America, and other foreign countries, as well as the neighbouring Colonies, for gas purposes. Two companies manufacture petroleum, shale

oil, and other products therefrom. The quantity raised in 1884 was 31,618 tons, valued at £72,176."

The military defence of the Colony consists of regulars and volunteers, and at the present time the total force is 10,828 men, comprising artillery, engineers, torpedo corps, &c. There is also a naval brigade of 425 men. Port Jackson is well protected by powerful guns, and an effective system of submarine mines has been adopted to prevent approach to the capital. The regulars were raised after the withdrawal of the Imperial troops in 1870.

The first volunteer force was enrolled in 1854, and consisted of a battery of artillery, a troop of cavalry, and six companies of infantry. It was not long in existence, and a second force came into being in 1860 with an increase in corps strength, and the force was again reorganised in 1878. It now consists of 612 artillery, 121 engineers, and 3,812 infantry, and a reserve of 5,000, with the proper complement of commissioned officers. There is also a torpedo corps, of 100 men. It is worthy of record in this place that, during the recent Egyptian campaign, the Colony had not only the honour of offering the mother country armed assistance, but actually of sending an admirable contingent, the *personnel* and efficiency of which received the warm encomium of Viscount Wolseley and other military critics.

The population of New South Wales on the 31st of March, 1886, was 992,875. It is estimated that before the end of 1886 the population will have reached one million.

The increase during each decennial period may be seen from the following figures. In 1842 the population was 149,000, in 1851 197,000, the small increase being due to the 68,000 taken away at the separation of Victoria. During the next decade it had grown to 358,000, in addition to 25,000 abstracted by the separation of Queensland. In 1881 the population was 781,000 against 519,000 in 1871.

At the census of 1881 the origin of the inhabitants was returned as follows: Australian born 68 per cent. (more than two-thirds); English or in countries under English rule 25 per cent.; foreign or unspecified 4 per cent. only. Comparing these figures, we find the satisfactory result that the proportion of Australian born population in 1881 exceeded that of 1871 by 7 per cent., and that of 1861 by no less than 21 per cent., proving conclusively that the Colony has all the elements of a self-sustaining population.

The population is of course quite out of proportion to the vast area of the Colony, which, from its marvellous fertility and almost unexampled natural resources, is certainly destined ever to hold that prominent position in Australia which befits the pioneer of civilization in the Southern Pacific.

GEOGRAPHY.

POSITION AND BOUNDARIES.—New South Wales, which lies on the eastern side of the Australian mainland, originally consisted of all the territory from Cape York, the most northerly point in the Australian Continent, to South Cape, the most southerly point in Tasmania, extending inland as far as the 135th meridian of east longitude; but its dimensions were considerably reduced when West Australia, Victoria, and Queensland, became separate colonies. At this day, it stretches inland from the waters of the Pacific to the meridian of 141° E. longitude, which divides it from South Australia. The northern boundary is Queensland, from which it is separated by a line drawn along the parallel of 29°, and continued in an irregular course eastward to Point Danger on the Pacific; the southern the Colony of Victoria, the dividing line being drawn from Cape Howe to the nearest source of the river Murray, and thence westward along the course of the Murray up to the 141st meridian.

The area of New South Wales is 310,938 square miles, or 199,000,320 acres, nearly three times the size of Great Britain and Ireland, or about equal to Great Britain and France combined. Its greatest length from north to south is 900 miles, and its greatest breadth 850 miles; the average is, however, only about 500 miles in either direction. The extent of coast-line is upwards of 800 miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The surface of New South Wales may be divided into three portions:—1. The coast district. 2. The table-lands. 3. The great plains. The first of these consists of a narrow strip of undulating land lying along the sea-coast, and averaging little more than thirty miles in breadth. It extends back to the Blue Mountains, which range divides the watershed of the country, the fall towards the sea being somewhat abrupt. This tract is in the main fertile, and is traversed by numerous rivers which have their outlet in the Pacific Ocean.

The table-lands form a high plateau, parallel to the coast, which contains the sources of the rivers above mentioned, and of others which flow, with a very gradual slope, towards the plains of the interior. On this plateau are found the loftiest mountains in the country.

The great plains are nearly level tracts of country, at no great elevation above the sea, lightly timbered, well watered, and clothed in good seasons with luxuriant verdure. These form the principal pasture lands of the Colony.

CAPES.—The coast-line is, in the main, rocky and precipitous, containing numerous headlands. The principal of these are Cape Danger, at the extreme north of the Colony, Cape Byron, the most easterly point of the Australian Continent, Smoky Cape, Cape Hawke, at the entrance to Lake Wallis, Sugar Loaf Point, Point Perpendicular, Cape St. George, between Jervis Bay and Sussex Haven, Green Cape, and Cape Howe.

BAYS AND INLETS.—There are on the east coast of Australia few considerable indentations, and this is especially the case in that part which belongs to New South Wales. The coast-line is, however, here sufficiently broken to contain several good harbours, among which may be mentioned Twofold Bay in the south (formerly a whaling station);

Jervis Bay, about 150 miles to the northward, with a length of 7 miles and a breadth of 4 miles; Port Jackson, on which Sydney, the capital of the Colony, is situated; Broken Bay, 20 miles north of Port Jackson, and Port Stephens, both used as harbours of refuge; and Port Hunter. Botany Bay and Middle Harbour, a northern prolongation of Port Jackson, are also inlets of considerable area, but neither of them has any great depth of water. Besides the above, there are several small harbours on the south-east coast, where breakwaters, wharves, and jetties adapted to the coasting trade have been constructed.

MOUNTAINS.—The mountains of New South Wales extend over a considerable area, but they are nowhere very lofty. The principal ranges are the Interior Ranges, the Great Dividing Chain and its spurs, and the Coast Ranges. The Interior Ranges lie near the western boundary of the Colony, and form the western watershed of the Darling River. They have Mount Arrowsmith and Mount Lyell, about 2,000 feet high, for their culminating points. The Great Dividing Chain extends throughout the entire length of the eastern and south-eastern coast of Australia, and forms the main watershed of the country. It comprises the New England Range, the Liverpool Range, the Blue Mountain Range, the Cullarin Range, the Gourock Range, the Manero Range, and the Muniong Range. The culminating point of the whole chain is Mount Kosciusko, in the Muniong Range, 7,308 feet high.

The Coast Ranges form the edge of the elevated table-land which contains the Great Dividing Chain. The loftiest peak is Mount Seaview, 6,000 feet in height.

There are besides these a few isolated mountains or hills, none of which attain a greater height then 3,000 feet.

LAKES.—The largest lake is Lake George, about 25 miles long by 8 broad, which is situated on the top of the table-land of the Dividing Range, about 25 miles S.W. of Goulburn. It is bounded on its longer sides by high mountains, rising in grassy slopes from the water's edge, but at the ends of the lake the country is grassy and more level. There is no outlet for the water, which is so saline as to be unfit for human consumption, though cattle drink it freely. Other lakes are: Lake Bathurst, about 10 miles to the eastward of Lake George, with an area of 8 square miles; Tarrago Lake and Burra Burra Lake. Lake Macquarie, about 12 miles south of Newcastle, and Lake Illawarra, about 50 miles south of Sydney, are improperly so called, as they are really inlets of the sea.

RIVERS.—The principal river of New South Wales, and indeed of Australia, is the Murray, which rises in the Muniong Range and flows in a westerly direction along nearly the whole southern boundary of the Colony. In the westerly portion of its course the Murray receives the waters of the Murrumbidgee (with its affluent the Lachlan) and the Darling, the last-mentioned river collecting the waters of many tributary streams. The length of the Murray, from its source to its entry into the sea at Encounter Bay in South Australia, is about 1,300 miles, and it drains an area of 270,000 square miles. It is navigable for a considerable portion of its course.

The rivers of the eastern watershed all fall into the Pacific Ocean. Their courses are necessarily short, being limited to the tract between the mountains and the coast. The principal of these are the Hunter, the

Hawkesbury, the Clarence, the Shoalhaven, the Macleay, the Richmond, and the Manning. Several of them are partially navigable for steamers of light draught, but they have bars at their mouths which render access to them somewhat dangerous. They are all liable to considerable changes in their volume of water, which at irregular intervals result in disastrous floods.

DIVISIONS, TOWNS, &C.—New South Wales is divided into 13 pastoral districts, and also into counties, of which there are 141. The old counties near the coast are more clearly defined and more thickly peopled than the counties of the interior, but these latter, which were at one time solely occupied by squatters, are now being gradually occupied by agriculturists and others.

The capital of the Colony, Sydney, is situated on the southern shores of Port Jackson, and possesses more than 122 miles of streets, and between 40,000 and 50,000 houses. It is spread over a surface measuring nearly four miles north and south, by about three miles east and west. It is well lighted with gas, the electric light being used at the principal lighthouse, on the leading quay, and at the General Post Office, the railway terminus, and other places. The public buildings are numerous, and generally well designed, as are many of the hundreds of mercantile and other business establishments which line the principal thoroughfares. The city possesses a town hall which, when completed, will be one of the largest in the world. It has also a fine Museum, Art Gallery, Technological Museum, Free Library, and other institutions of a kindred character, together with an extensive Botanic Garden, beautifully laid out, and several large parks and public reserves. In addition to the steam tramways, which furnish a cheap and ready means of reaching the suburbs, there are hundreds of omnibuses and cabs plying in every direction during the day, while ferry boats are continually conveying passengers to the extensive suburbs which have sprung up on the northern shore of the harbour and the Parramatta and Lane Cove Rivers, or to the numerous places of pleasure resort, such as Watson's Bay, where, on one side, the waters of the broad Pacific spread out as far as the eye can reach, while on the other there is a magnificent panoramic view of the harbour, with Sydney in the distance. The present population of the city and suburbs is estimated at 290,000 souls. In its general appearance Sydney presents all the leading features of a busy and prosperous English city, there being little, save the marked absence of the hideous poverty and squalor so conspicuous in the larger English cities and towns, to remind the visitor that he is many thousands of miles away from the parent country.

Parramatta, at the head of Port Jackson (18 miles from Sydney) has about 8,500 inhabitants, and is connected with Sydney by railway. Windsor (28 miles N.W. of Sydney) is on the river Hawkesbury, which is navigable to this point for vessels of 100 tons burthen.

Liverpool, to the westward, and Campbelltown, to the south-west of Sydney, are small inland towns. To the north of Sydney, at the mouth of the river Hunter, is Newcastle, which has recently been created a city, a flourishing place of some 20,000 inhabitants, with valuable coal mines in its vicinity. It forms the outport of an important agricultural district.

The largest town in the interior is Bathurst, 100 miles W.N.W. of Sydney, on the Macquarie river, with a population of upwards of 7,000.

Goulburn, 108 miles to the S.W. of Sydney, and other thriving towns, are of local importance.

Maitland, on the Hunter, about 15 miles north-west of Newcastle, rivals Bathurst in population and importance, whilst the extension of railways north, south, and west, is causing a rapid development of many towns situated in the interior. Chief amongst these are Orange, Wellington, Dubbo, and Burke, in the west. In the north, Scone, Tamworth, Glen Innes, and Armidale, and in the south, Young, Wagga, Abury, and Hay, are fast rivalling the older cities in population and importance.

Works of great magnitude are now being constructed which will enable the Clarence river to be navigable at all times. This river opens up a very arge extent of country particularly suitable for sugar-growing.

VICTORIA.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
SIR HENRY BROUGHAM LOCH, K.C.B.

PREMIER AND TREASURER,
HON. JAMES SERVICE.

CHIEF SECRETARY,
(Vacant).

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
(Vacant).

COMMISSIONER OF LANDS,
HON. A. L. TUCKER.

MINISTER OF RAILWAYS AND PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
HON. DUNCAN GILLIES.

COMMISSIONER OF TRADE AND CUSTOMS,
HON. G. D. LANGRIDGE.

SOLICITOR-GENERAL AND COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC WORKS AND WATER SUPPLY,
HON. ALFRED DEAKIN.

MINISTER OF MINES AND AGRICULTURE,
HON. J. F. LEVIEN.

MINISTER OF DEFENCE,
HON. F. T. SARGOOD, C.M.G.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
HON. JAMES CAMPBELL.

MINISTER (WITHOUT PORTFOLIO),
HON. N. THORNLEY.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
SIR W. FOSTER STAWELL.

JUDGES,
THEIR HONOURS R. MOLESWORTH, G. HIGINBOTHAM, HARTLEY WILLIAMS, EDWARD HOLROYD, J. B. KERFERD.

GOVERNMENT STATIST,
H. H. HAYTER, C.M.G.

AGENT-GENERAL IN LONDON,
HON. GRAHAM BERRY.
Secretary: J. CASHEL HOEY, C.M.G.

VICTORIA.

THE Colony of Victoria, so named after Her Most Gracious Majesty, in its early days formed what was known as the Port Phillip district of New South Wales, its first permanent settlement being accomplished in November, 1834, at Portland Bay, by Mr. Edward Henty from Van Dieman's Land—as Tasmania was then called—who landed with stock and boats in order to form a whaling establishment. He was followed in the next year by others from the same place, as well as from Sydney, who brought stock with them, and penetrated into the interior. Sir Thomas Mitchell coming from New South Wales about the same time, traversed a considerable portion of the district, and was much struck with its wonderful capabilities. The reports he furnished and the success of the first settlers caused great excitement both in Australia and in the United Kingdom, and a flood of emigrants with their cattle and baggage flowed from all quarters, from Tasmania especially, into the new territory. In the meantime, Portland Bay had been found unsuitable for the nucleus of a capital, which was eventually founded at Port Phillip Bay, where the city of Melbourne now stands.

Regular government was established in 1836, Captain Lonsdale having been sent from Sydney to take charge of the district. The Governor, Sir Richard Bourke, visited it in the following year. He concurred in Captain Lonsdale's site for a capital and named the infant city Melbourne, after the principal Minister of the British Crown. Captain Lonsdale was succeeded in 1839 by Mr. La Trobe, who, with the title of Superintendent, was sent out to take charge of the infant settlement, and who administered the government until the separation of Victoria from the mother colony.

The growth of Victoria has been quite unprecedented in the annals of colonial history, and so early as 1841 an agitation was going on in the settlement for its separation from New South Wales. This agitation was continued from year to year, and ultimately the Imperial Government gave way, and Victoria made an independent colony by the Act 18 & 19 Vict. c. 55, its limits being defined by that Act as the 34th and 39th parallels of south latitude, and the 141st and 150th meridians of east longitude. Almost simultaneously with its separation, an event occurred which exercised a most important influence on the future of the Colony, viz., the discovery of gold, an event which gave to Victoria an impetus in development which has in no slight degree contributed to its present flourishing condition. "One of the direct effects of the discovery of gold in Victoria was to raise the price of everything—the price of landed and household property, the price of agricultural and horticultural produce, the price of merchandise of every description. Another was to make Victoria

better known in the world than it had ever been before; to raise it higher in the estimation of the various nations of the earth as a great producing country; to attract larger numbers of people to its shores than it had ever previously done. And a third was to stimulate every branch of industry; to promote the construction of roads and railways; to provide for an expansion of the shipping and navigation trade; to give an impetus to the cause of education; to further the interests of all classes in every way. But what the discovery of gold in such large quantities did for Victoria directly, it did for the rest of the Australian colonies indirectly, not one of them being excluded from a participation in the benefits. In lifting Victoria up, it lifted them up—not in an equal degree, perhaps, but still very strikingly."*

The year 1851 was remarkable for another very notable incident, not at all of a progressive character like the great gold finds, but quite appalling in its force and grandeur, viz., the tremendous bush fire which occurred just before the separation from the mother colony; and as a description affords a thrilling insight into the character of such an event, it will be interesting to give here some account of this great conflagration:

"A race with a bush fire in Victoria in the summer is no uncommon thing; but such a bush-fire as that which occurred in Victoria on the 6th of February, 1851, just before its separation from New South Wales, is without a parallel in the history of the country. On the morning of that day a hot wind set in, and by eleven o'clock in the forenoon had increased almost to a hurricane in Melbourne, and swept over the face of the whole country, bush fires following with the rapidity of lightning, and devouring all that stood in their way. Had any portion of Melbourne taken fire, the city would have been reduced to ashes, and the people would have perished, as no efforts of theirs could have stayed the progress of the flames, or have enabled them to provide means of escape for themselves. As it was, they kept close in their houses, listening with terror to the howling of the wind outside, and trembling at the thought of what must be going on in the country.

"Some idea of the latter may be formed from accounts which reached Melbourne from hour to hour which were unhappily true, and which struck deeper and deeper terror into the hearts of the people. When the flames first appeared in the country some endeavoured to stay their progress in the usual way, by beating them out with wet bags or bushes, but only to become victims to their devouring force, and to be left lifeless on the ground. Others, who had left their homes not knowing what was to happen, had either to fly on horseback out of the line of the flames to the nearest water-hole, or were suddenly caught in the furiously-suffocating and intensely-heated blast and roasted alive. The flocks and herds of the settlers, the wild beasts of the fields and the forests, the birds of prey, the very reptiles peeping out of their holes, all having life, were encircled in their attempts at escape, and were overpowered by the sweltering heat. Forests which were healthy and verdant in the morning presented nothing but the appearance of blackened trunks in the evening, with here and there an exception in the shape of one on fire. In the majority of cases it was impossible to say how these fires had occurred.

* Allen's, 'History of Australia,' p. 94.

The destruction of life and property was immense, more than could be ascertained then, or ever will be known. Everywhere the devastating influence of the storm of wind and flame was felt. Ashes were carried from Mount Macedon to Melbourne by it, a distance of forty-five miles.

"The wind suddenly changed at nightfall on the same day, and the thermometer, which stood at 118° and 119° Fahr. during the day, fell to 80°. What a scene did the morning of the 7th present! Fertile districts utterly wasted; flocks and herds abandoned by their owners; the settlers who had escaped with their lives destitute; and the greatest suffering everywhere exhibited! Well might the 6th of February, 1851, in Victoria be called 'Black Thursday.' It was a black day indeed, and will ever be remembered. But the clearing of the land makes the recurrence of such another day in Victoria impossible. There are no materials for such a flame now to feed upon."*

The Governor who replaced Mr. Latrobe was Sir Charles Hotham. He assumed office on the 22nd of June, 1854, and was at once met by a conflict of opinion between his Legislative Council and the Imperial Government on the subject of the transportation question. The Council passed an Act to stop the influx of convicts to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, but this was resented by the Governor as an interference with the royal prerogative. Disputes consequently arose on this matter, which his proposal to tax the diggers did not tend to improve. It would not be fitting to leave the records of these times without some reference to the Ballarat riots which occurred in December, 1854. Although speedily put down by the military, at one time these threatened very grave proportions. The riots arose from an increased tax demanded from the diggers as a mining licence, and the vexatious manner of its collection. The miners having appointed a Commander-in-Chief and Minister of War with power to levy supplies, erected a stockade and defied the authorities. After considerable bloodshed, the stockade was carried by storm, and the rioters dispersed. The fact that the juries before whom the captured miners were tried for high treason acquitted them shows that a more judicious action on the part of the Government in the first instance would have prevented this lamentable occurrence. The Governor's views on the land question showed a wide divergence from those of the newly-freed Colonists. The consequence was that Sir Charles became very unpopular in the Colony; but, as often happens, however, when popular discontent is at its height, extraneous events directed men's thoughts to another channel, viz., the discussion which was going on in England with reference to the whole question of Colonial autonomy. The Imperial Legislature finally decided to grant responsible government to all those Colonies which were in a position to carry it out, and the new Constitution granted in 1855 helped to relax the tension with regard to the Governor in the minds of the settlers. Sir Charles, however, died on the 31st of December, 1855, just before the Act came into operation. His rule was not an easy one, the discovery of gold having shaken to its very foundations Colonial life in general, and Victoria in particular. Great advances were made in material wealth, but how far this was effected by the Government of the day is not easy to determine.

* Allen's, 'History of Australia,' p. 87.

The successor to Governor Hotham was Sir Henry Barkly, who arrived towards the close of 1856, the first Parliament of Victoria having meanwhile been elected and in session for about a month. Ministerial crises were pretty frequent during the period he held office, occurring more than once a year, but they ultimately led to some important measures being passed, such as the Ballot Act, the Manhood Suffrage Act, and the Duffy Land Act. Sir Henry Barkly was a very popular Governor, and it was generally desired in the Colony that his term of office should be prolonged, but he was transferred to the Mauritius in September, 1863.

Sir Charles Darling, his successor, arrived in the same month, and did not remain in office for quite three years, his action with regard to various measures, and his general administrative ability, not having been deemed satisfactory by the Imperial Government, and this it is believed led to his recall in May, 1866. It is but fair to remark, however, that there was a constant strife between the Colonial Upper and Lower Houses, which rendered his position an unusually delicate one. It is interesting to note at the present time that one of the principal subjects in dispute was that of free trade, the Assembly proposing to tax certain articles, and the Legislative Council rejecting the proposal. Frequent deadlocks ensued, and much confusion and trouble were produced, but the contest was eventually terminated by mutual concessions.

The next Governor, Sir J. H. Manners Sutton, afterwards Viscount Canterbury, was a ruler of very different stamp, and was very much and deservedly respected. It is recorded of him in colonial history that "he was a man of action, not of words, never intermeddling when his services were not required, nor neglecting anything within the proper sphere of his duty." This is abundantly exemplified by the fact that, soon after his succession, he put an end to the unseemly legislative deadlocks bequeathed by his successor, and during his rule there seems to have been no disturbance of harmonious relations between the Governor and the Legislature, or between the two Houses themselves, the social and mercantile condition of the Colony, moreover, continuing to progress with a well-grounded stability. Lord Canterbury's impartial and admirable temper rendered him peculiarly fitted to hold the reins of power at so important a juncture in the history of the Colony.

Sir George Bowen, who succeeded Lord Canterbury in 1873, was not a successful Governor. He does not appear to have possessed that impartiality which is so essential in a Viceroy; and his policy led to a revival of the legislative conflicts. The attempted reform of the Legislative Council by the Prime Minister caused a deadlock of exceptional severity between the Houses of Parliament, one of the outcomes being a wholesale dismissal of civil servants, who were practically abandoned by the Governor, on the pretence of there being no money to pay them. This treatment of a body of public servants whose capacity and integrity were generally recognised, and who little deserved to be made the scapegoat of a conflict between the two Houses, was received by the Victorian public with the greatest indignation. Sir George was transferred to Mauritius in 1879, and was succeeded by the Marquis of Normanby, who was transferred from New Zealand.

The most noteworthy incidents of Lord Normanby's rule were the settlement of the long-vexed question of the reform of the Legislative

Council, and the Great International Exhibition held at Melbourne in 1880, which was by far the most successful exhibition ever held within Her Majesty's Colonies. Lord Normanby resigned office in 1884, and was succeeded by the present Governor Sir Henry Brougham Loch.

From its proximity to New South Wales there is not much to distinguish Victoria from the climatic conditions of that Colony. Hot winds blow in the summer months, as in most other parts of Australia, and droughts occur too frequently to be otherwise than prejudicial both to live stock or vegetation. In certain districts, serious inconvenience and loss has been experienced at times on account of deficient rainfall; nevertheless, the Colony is a very healthy one, resembling the more favoured portions of Southern Europe. "To obviate the consequences of drought, irrigation has been frequently practised by individuals with great success, which fact having been brought to the notice of the Government, a measure has recently been passed with the view of promoting national irrigation upon a large scale. To accomplish this object, certain areas may, at the request of the residents, be proclaimed "irrigation areas," to which Trusts are appointed to carry out the irrigation scheme proposed for the district. The commissioners of these Trusts have power, under certain restrictions, to borrow money for the purpose of constructing the works included in the scheme—for the repayment of which a sinking fund must be provided—also to levy rates upon all lands capable of irrigation within the area under their jurisdiction, in order to provide the annual interest on the loan and the necessary payment to the sinking fund, also to defray the current expenses attendant upon the operations of the trust. From the satisfactory results which have attended the irrigation of land when carried out by private persons, and from the peculiar facilities which exist for supplying water for irrigation purposes to the principal farming districts in Victoria, it is expected that the effect of this measure, when it comes into full force, will be to give a marked impulse to the profitable carrying on of agricultural operations."* The mean temperature at Melbourne for the five years ended 1882 was 57½°, the maximum being 111°, and the minimum 27°, and this average is not materially altered by subsequent records. The average yearly rainfall was 26 inches.

In any estimate of the agriculture of Victoria, it is necessary to bear in mind the effect produced by the gold discoveries of 1851. This effect was by no means beneficial to the tillage of the soil, causing a drop of the area under cultivation from 52,000 acres in 1850, to 35,000 in 1853, and this, notwithstanding that the population had trebled in the meantime. However, after the gold fever had in some measure subsided, a return to the no less useful and much less exciting pursuit of agriculture gradually set in, and, from official returns, we find that in 1885 the area under cultivation was over 2¼ million acres, nearly the half of this total being covered by wheat. The other cereal crops are barley, oats, and rye. Hay and artificial grasses cover about 600,000 acres, potatoes some 40,000, about 175,000 are fallow, the remainder being made up by minor crops, including grapes and other fruits.

In the growing of wheat Victoria must of late have made rapid strides, for whereas we find that not long ago it did not grow nearly enough for its

* Hayter's Handbook to the Colony of Victoria.

own settlers, in 1884 it was able to export grain and flour to the value of £1,762,007—this quantity being the largest in the Colony's history. The area under wheat has in fact more than trebled during the last ten years. In other crops there is still plenty of room for advancement, for during the seven years ended with 1883, no less than a yearly average of half a million sterling was expended on the importation of produce that could have been grown every whit as effectually at home. This anomaly, however, seems now in course of being remedied. Vegetables of all kinds thrive exceedingly well, whether field or garden kinds, the potato yielding in some districts as much as ten tons to the acre, and no potato disease has yet arisen to thwart the farmer's care. Ordinary English fruits ripen well, as do also grapes and oranges. In common with some of the Australian Colonies, Victoria seems destined to be at no distant date one of the wine-producing countries of the world, her wines being very favourably received in England. The industry received a check some time ago by an appearance of the redoubtable phylloxera, which, however, was promptly eradicated. The collateral industry of the production of raisins exists, and is capable of indefinite extension. Olives are being grown in many parts of the Colony, and so far successfully. Hops of fine quality can be grown to advantage, and some 1,700 acres were laid down in 1884.

Victoria has all the conditions necessary for the production of silk upon a large scale, with the sole exception of labour. Here, as in other parts of the island, the mulberry-tree grows luxuriantly, and the silk-worms breed and thrive. It is a matter of great regret that so profitable and interesting a branch of industry is not in that state of success which could be wished for. That our Colonies should furnish the raw material for the costly productions of France and Italy, as well as of the minor fabrics made at home, cannot but be the desire of all Englishmen interested in such matters, and it would rejoice them, perhaps, still more if Australia were in a position to compete with Continental Europe in the manufactured article. The Sericulture and the Viticulture of our Australian Colonies are both well worth more attention than appears to have been given them by manufacturers and political economists. Tobacco, which is a somewhat precarious crop, does well in many places. There are 13 manufactories engaged in the tobacco industry, representing an invested capital of £121,610, and employing 267 hands.

The rearing of cattle and sheep—the latter especially—forms one of the staple industries of Victoria. What has been said with regard to these in the other parts of Australia applies here. Every attention is paid to the improvement of the various breeds, and the attention bestowed has been crowned with merited success; the price obtained for Victoria wool being as high, or higher, than that of any other variety.

The number of cattle in 1885 was 1,287,945; of sheep, 10,637,412; of horses, 293,846; of swine, 234,347.

The Act 13 & 14 Vict. cap. 59 intituled "An Act for the better government of Her Majesty's Australian Colonies," which received the Royal assent on the 5th August, 1850, provided "that the territories now comprised within the said district of Port Phillip, including the town of Melbourne, and bounded on the north and north-east by a straight line drawn from Cape Howe to the nearest source of the River Murray, and thence by the course of that river to the eastern boundary of the Colony

of South Australia, shall be separated from the Colony of New South Wales." Accordingly, on the 1st July, 1851, the Governor-General of Australia proclaimed and declared the district of Port Phillip to have been separated from New South Wales, and to have been constituted a separate Colony to be known as Victoria.

The Act above cited provided for the appointment of a Governor and for a Legislative Council, one-third of which is to be nominated by the Crown, and the remainder to be elected in the Colony; determined the qualification of electors and other matters. The Constitution, however, as fixed by this Act, did not long remain without alteration, the Secretary of State (the late Lord Hampton) the following year inviting the Legislative Council to pass a Bill that would more nearly assimilate the institutions of the Colony to those of the mother country. The suggestion was acted on, and a Bill having this end in view passed the Legislative Council in March, 1854, and was followed by an Act of the Imperial Parliament in the following year (18 & 19 Vict. cap. 55). This Act was proclaimed on the 23rd November, 1855, and is still in force, although considerable alterations have been made from time to time.

Under this Constitution, the executive power is vested in the hands of a Governor appointed by the Crown, who acts under the advice of a responsible ministry, consisting of ten members. The legislative authority in Victoria is vested in two Houses of Parliament—viz., the Upper House, or Legislative Council, consisting of 42 members returned in fourteen provinces, each member being elected for six years, and one member for each province retiring every two years in rotation, but being eligible for re-election, a small property qualification existing for both electors and members; and the Lower House, or Legislative Assembly, which consists of 86 members elected for three years, returned in 55 districts or electorates. There is no property qualification for members of this House, and every male of twenty-one years of age or upwards, untainted by crime, is allowed a vote. In the year 1884 the electors on the rolls of the Legislative Council numbered 105,483, and those on the rolls of the Legislative Assembly 199,832. Of the whole population of the Colony one in every five is an elector for the Lower House, and there is a member to every 10,835 persons. If Victoria were to be represented according to population in the same proportion as the United Kingdom, she would, instead of sending 86 members to Parliament, return only 16.

Municipal or local government is almost universal throughout Victoria, about eighteen-nineteenths of its whole area being divided into urban or rural municipalities. The former are called cities, towns, and boroughs, and the latter shires. They are regulated under an Act of the Legislature, each municipality being a body corporate, with perpetual succession and a common seal, and thus capable of suing and being sued, and of purchasing, holding, and alienating land. The cities, towns, and boroughs number 60, and the shires 120. They have power to levy rates, and are also subsidized by the State. Their peculiar functions are to make, maintain, and control all streets, roads, bridges, ferries, culverts, watercourses, and jetties within their respective boundaries; also to regulate under proper bye-laws, the markets, pounds, abattoirs, baths, charitable institutions, and the arrangements for sewerage, lighting, water supply, prevention of fire, and carrying on of noxious trades. Together, they contained,

in 1883, 907,835 inhabitants, or ninety-nine hundredths of the total population.

The following particulars with regard to the trade of Victoria are compiled from the official Handbook prepared under the direction of the Victoria Government, by Mr. Hayter, C.M.G.

In 1884 the declared value of goods imported into Victoria was £19,201,633, and that of goods exported therefrom was £16,055,465. The excess of imports over exports was thus £3,146,168, and the total value of external trade was £35,257,098. In the latest year of which returns are at hand, the value per head of the external trade of Belgium, which is larger than that of any other independent country, was £41 8*s.* 7*d.*, whilst that of Holland was £34 17*s.* 1*d.*, that of the United Kingdom was £21 9*s.*, that of France was £12 6*s.* 7*d.*, and that of the United States was only £6 9*s.* 5*d.* Nearly half the total trade is with the United Kingdom, and nearly a third with the neighbouring colonies—principally New South Wales. In 1883 the principal articles imported were wool (from across the border), valued at £2,043,588; sugar and molasses, £1,358,523; cottons, £836,496; woollens, £793,015; live stock, £922,936; iron and steel (exclusive of railway rails, &c.), £691,367; and gold (including specie), £779,665. The principal exports were wool, of the value of £6,054,613; gold (including specie), £3,916,539; wheat, flour, and biscuit, £651,727; and live stock, £804,836. The value of these articles of export alone represent nearly four-fifths of the whole export trade. Articles of Victorian produce or manufacture were represented in the exports by £13,292,294, being equivalent to £14 9*s.* 10*d.* per head of population; or to 81 per cent. of the total exports. The three staple articles included in the list were—wool, of the value of £5,213,198; gold (including specie), £3,821,097; and wheat, flour, and biscuit, £631,646. At the end of 1884 Victoria had eleven Banks, having total assets of over £36,000,000.

The Church of England in Victoria is divided into two dioceses, Melbourne and Ballarat; the first named see having been separated from the metropolitan see in 1848, before the separation of the Colony from New South Wales, Dr. Perry being the first bishop. The growth of the Colony having made further ecclesiastical supervision necessary, the diocese of Ballarat was created, which is independent of the Bishop of Melbourne, but subject to the see of Sydney.

The number of clergy in the Melbourne diocese is 134, and in that of Ballarat 52.

The Roman Catholic Church is strong in numbers, but no details of its organization appear in the official papers with which we have been favoured. Of the non-conforming sects the Presbyterians are most numerous, being closely followed by the Methodists. The Independents and Baptists are not strong in point of numbers.

Mr. Hayter, the Government Statist, with his accustomed thoroughness of execution, has not only given the returns of the census of 1881, but has estimated those for 1883, and both these sets of figures are furnished below:—

Religious Denominations.	Mean Population.	
	1881.	1883.
Church of England . .	311,291	331,151
Presbyterians	132,591	141,032
Methodists	108,393	122,344
Independents	19,878	21,137
Baptists	20,373	21,657
Other Protestants . .	25,866	20,451
Roman Catholics . .	203,480	216,363
Jews	4,330	4,608
Pagans	11,159	11,945
Other Sects	24,985	26,622

The system of elementary education in Victoria does not call for any lengthened notice here, owing to its similarity to that of New South Wales. It is carried out with the thoroughness and energy characteristic of our Victorian fellow-subjects, and it is free for all children whose parents may be willing to accept it. Extra subjects are of course only taught on payment of a small charge.

The State has not, up to the present, provided any system of intermediate education beyond awarding eleven exhibitions annually to scholars from the elementary schools on the results of a competitive examination. The selected scholars proceed for two years to a grammar or other school approved by the Minister of Education, whence they go into Melbourne University to complete their studies. The Exhibitions are tenable for six years, and are of the yearly value of £35. The private schools of the Colony number 655, and the scholars attending them over 35,000. The education given at them is reported as equal to the best grammar schools in England. The University of Melbourne is both an examining and a teaching body, and has power to grant degrees in all faculties except Divinity.

It has been officially estimated that all the children in Victoria between the ages of six and fifteen (the school age) except about 8 per cent., receive education during some portion of each year. The results are shown in the very large proportion of educated children comprised in the population. According to the returns of the census of 1881, of every 10,000 children at the school age, 9,481 could read, 8,535 of them could also write, and only 519 were unable to read. The proportion of instructed children indicated by these figures is far higher than the proportion prevailing in any of the other Australian colonies, and is equalled in few, if any, other countries.

Technical education is provided for in schools of design which have been established at twenty-five places in the Colony, and in the Industrial and Technological Museum attached to the Melbourne National Gallery.

In connection with the furtherance of technical education, the honoured name of Sir Redmond Barry, so long Judge of the Supreme Court of the Colony, will ever be held in appreciation and esteem.

The food resources of Victoria are amply sufficient for its inhabitants, and a considerable export of some agricultural commodities is carried on, wheat, for instance, of which we are informed the Colony was able to send

away in the seven years ended with 1883, 14½ million bushels, and in 1884 no less than 9 million bushels, a larger quantity than had ever previously been exported.

On the other hand, the production of other kinds of agricultural and farm produce has been neglected, and they have to be imported. Oats, barley, beans, maize, tobacco, grass and clover seeds figure prominently among these. The animal life of the farm furnishes the colonists with an abundant supply of meat.

Acclimatisation has been mainly carried out by the Zoological Society of Melbourne, with highly successful results. With the exception of the rabbit, and perhaps the domestic sparrow, the selection has been judicious, and has remedied the defective fauna of the Australian continent. It would seem that the introduction of a few secretary birds (*Gypogeranus serpentarius*) from the Cape would not be without advantage in destroying the superabundant reptile life of the Colony. The extermination of the death adder, the tiger snake, the black snake, the brown snake, and the whip snake, all deadly reptiles, which are far too common to be pleasant, would be a great boon, and tend to raise the "secretary" to the lofty position of St. Patrick.

The revenue of the Colony is derived from excise and land revenue, territorial land sales (licenses, pastoral rents, &c.), public works, ports and harbours, post and telegraphs, fees, fines and miscellaneous revenue. The total for the year 1885 was £6,290,652, showing an increase on the previous year of over £356,000, the expenditure for the same period being £6,212,517. The public debt was mainly incurred to provide for the construction of railways, water supply, defences, elementary education, and public works. Measures are provided for redeeming some of the outstanding loans, which will no doubt be renewed at a cheaper rate. The profit on the State railways averages 4 per cent. It should be noted, however, that in Victoria, as at home, there is a growing tendency to increase in the matter of municipal loans, which, if lavishly developed, will of course add considerably to the national indebtedness.

The following particulars with regard to the railways of Victoria are taken from the Handbook issued by the Agent-General, and other sources:

"All the railways in Victoria are the property of the State, whose policy it has been to open up the interior by their means to such an extent that railway communication should keep pace with settlement, be the latter ever so rapid. The consequence is that railways are extending to the most remote parts of the Colony, and it appears probable that ere long there will be a railway at every man's door, the advantage to farmers, graziers, miners, and all others who have business relations with the interior of the Colony being incalculable. At the end of June 1884, 1,624 miles were open for traffic, 71 in progress, and over 1200 miles authorised. The cost of construction, inclusive of rolling-stock, and building a bridge over the Murray to connect with the New South Wales lines, was over £22,000,000. The total receipts in 1884 amounted to £2,196,150, and the working expenses to about £1,335,800."

The systems may be briefly described as the *Northern* system, from Melbourne to Echuca (Rodney County), a distance of 156 miles, and connected thence with New South Wales; the *North Eastern*, from Melbourne to Wodonga (Bogong County), a distance of 187 miles; the *Eastern*

system, from Melbourne to Sale (Tanjil County), a distance of 127 miles; and the *Western* system, from Melbourne to Geelong and Ballarat, a distance of 100¼ miles. In addition to these there are suburban lines connecting the capital with its suburbs.

To towns which are not accessible by rail, coaches run at frequent intervals, and most of them are connected with the railways. There are always plenty of conveyances to outlying villages. The total number of manufactories, works, &c., in March 1885 was 2856, employing nearly 50,000 hands; the lands, buildings, machinery and plant being valued at over 10 millions sterling.

The number of vessels entered and cleared at Victorian ports during the year 1884 was 3,975, with an aggregate burthen of 3,151,587 tons, and were manned by 129,034 persons.

The principal metalliferous wealth of Victoria consists of gold, and a short reference may here be given to it, as well as to the other mineral products.

Gold.—Victoria is known all over the world as a great gold-producing country; other metals and minerals exist, but they are not found in anything like such important quantities. The first discovery of gold took place in 1851, and this event constitutes an important era in the Colony's history, as well as in that of Australia generally. It is affirmed that two-thirds of the area of Victoria is occupied by gold-bearing rocks. The precious metal occurs in quartz and alluvium, and although there is a falling off from the excitement of the early days of the industry, mining for gold still forms one of the principal occupations of the colonists. Nuggets of great size have frequently been found. The number of quartz reefs found to be auriferous were returned in 1882 as 3,683, and in 1883, 3,799. The total value of metal raised from 1851 to December 31, 1884, was over £212,000,000. This industry affords employment to over 28,000 miners.

Silver.—This metal is not abundant. Mines of it are in work at St. Arnaud (Kara-kara County), and Bethanga (Benambra County).

Osmium.—This rare metal has been found in small quantities near Stockyard Creek (Buln-Buln County).

Tin.—Tin occurs in the district of Beechworth in the beds of tributaries of the Yarra-Yarra, Thompson and Latrobe, also at Taradale (Talbot County), Franklin and Strathbogie.

Copper.—This metal is also found at St. Arnaud, Bethanga, and other places.

Iron.—Iron is worked at Lal-Lal (Grant County).

Antimony.—This is found in the form of sulphuret and oxide at Heathcote (Dalhousie County), Whroo (Rodney County), Anderson's Creek, Rutherglen (Bogong County), and other localities.

Zinc.—Zinc has been found at Daylesford (Talbot County) and Avoca in Gipp's Land.

Cobalt.—Cobalt exists at Yea (Anglesey County).

Manganese.—Manganese is found at Pleasant Creek, Daylesford, and in Gipp's Land.

Coal.—Coal has not hitherto been found in any notable quantity, but a very fine sample has recently been discovered in the Gippsland district, which points to the presence of a valuable field in that neighbourhood.

Should the conjecture prove to be correct upon further examination, an invaluable production will be added to the list of the very numerous and rich resources of the Colony.

Precious Stones.—Diamonds have occasionally been met with in the north-east parts of the Colony near El Dorado, and the Woolshed and Pilot Creek, and the same remark applies as to sapphires.

The other minerals met with are kaolin, bitumen, gypsum, limestone, marble and Molybdenite.

Victoria is well protected from external attack. Not only is the approach to the metropolis guarded by forts and torpedoes, constructed upon the most approved principles, but the Colony possesses a small but efficient fleet, and land forces numbering 3,000. The fleet consists of a flagship, an ironclad turret ship, two gunboats, three torpedo boats, and several armed steamers. The land forces embrace a paid artillery corps, and a militia consisting of foot and mounted rifles, field and garrison artillery, and engineer and torpedo corps. The ships and troops are commanded by Imperial officers, who are paid by the Colony. All the forces are enrolled under a Discipline Act, which appropriates £110,000 annually for defence purposes.

The important Colony we are referring to, though the smallest in surface extent of any of the Australian dominions, has the largest population, and is a rapidly increasing community. At the last census (1881) the total population was 862,346, the proportion of sexes being 452,000 males and 410,000 females, the figures at the previous decade being 731,528 for the total, and the numbers of the sexes were 401,000 males and 330,000 females. During the last decade there has been a large decrease in the number of Chinese and aborigines. It is estimated that about the middle of 1886—say at the time the Colonial and Indian Exhibition opens—there will be a million inhabitants in Victoria. Those specially interested in the civil and conjugal condition of the people will find full details in the 'Victorian Year Book,' published in Melbourne under the able editorship of Mr. H. H. Hayter, C.M.G., the London agents for which are Messrs. Trübner & Co.

Owing probably to the flourishing condition of the Colony, no State assistance is now given to emigrants from Europe. Every facility, however, is afforded by the various shipping companies for the conveyance of persons of all classes at reasonable rates and with celerity. The average passage by steam is 50 days; the sailing vessels (which come round the Cape) take from 70 to 100 days. The net immigration in 1884 amounted to 14,641 persons, more than five-sixths of the total arrivals being of a migratory character.

Naturalisation is easily obtained, and naturalised subjects are eligible for all the offices of State. To procure letters of naturalisation an alien must present a memorial to the Governor, stating on oath his name, age, birthplace, residence, occupation, period of residence in the Colony, and his desire to settle therein, which memorial must be accompanied by a certificate from a magistrate to the effect that he is known to be the person signing and is of good repute. Should the letters be granted, the applicant, before they are issued, must take an oath of allegiance to the Sovereign of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. During the thirteen years ended 1883 the following persons of different nationalities

have become naturalised :—French, 33; Belgians, 7; Dutch, 12; Austrians, 25; Germans, 574; Italians, 32; Spaniards, 5: Portuguese, 1; Russians, 26; United States subjects, 18; Chinese, 1,001; subjects of other countries, 313; total, 2,047.

In concluding this brief sketch of Victoria, it may be well to give the reader some general idea of the amazing advancement which has been made by this worthy daughter of the mother country, in the words of that eminent authority, Mr. James Allen:

"Less than half a century ago Victoria was a barren waste, its coast line being washed with the waters of the Southern Ocean, not more than half-a-dozen wandering navigators or explorers having ever seen it. Nor had those who then saw it the remotest idea of what it was to become —the premier Colony in these seas; not in a single generation indeed, but in far less than the threescore years and ten which has been fixed upon as the span of human existence—in much less, in fact, than in two-thirds of that time—many now living having witnessed its genesis, its progress, its growth to maturity, not as a colony merely, but as an advanced civilized country, with all the signs of coming national greatness about it.

"No doubt Victoria has been much favoured beyond other colonies. It had scarcely drawn the first breath of its separate colonial existence before gold in large quantities came pouring into Melbourne weekly and monthly. Population was attracted to the Colony by thousands, tens of thousands, and hundreds of thousands from all parts of the world during the first ten years after gold was discovered. Its trade and commerce with the outer world was promoted by these means. Its flocks and herds were multiplied, and the cultivation of its land was extended. Manufactures of various kinds sprang up almost spontaneously. Yet something is due—very much indeed—to the industry, energy, and enterprise of the people; to their well-directed efforts for clothing the Colony with all the elements and advantages of the most advanced modern civilization; to their taste, their growing intelligence, and their cultivation of all the graces of social life. Some mistakes have doubtless been made, but only such as are common in efforts to found new countries, and these will be corrected, or will correct themselves, in time."

GEOGRAPHY.

POSITION AND BOUNDARIES.—The Colony of Victoria comprises that part of the south-easterly portion of the Australian Continent which lies between the parallels of 34° and 39° south latitude, and the meridians of 141° and 150° east longitude. It is bounded on the north and north-east by New South Wales, from which it is separated by the river Murray, and by an imaginary line drawn from Forest Hill, a considerable elevation not far distant from the sources of the Murray, to Cape Howe; on the west by South Australia—the meridian of 141° marking the frontier between the two Colonies; and on the south and south-east by the Southern Ocean, Bass's Strait and the Pacific Ocean. Its extreme length from east to west is 480 miles; its breadth, 240 miles; and its area, 87,884

square miles, or 56,245,760 acres, which is slightly less than the area of the island of Great Britain. The coast-line, which is broken by several inlets, extends from Cape Howe in a south-westerly direction, to Cape Wilson (the most southerly point of the Continent), a distance of 250 miles, thence westwardly to the mouth of the river Glenelg (long. 141°), a further distance of about 420 miles. This is exclusive of the length of the shores of the principal inlets; if these be added, the coast-line falls little short of 1,000 miles in length.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The general aspect of Victoria—if we except the Wimmera district, in the north-west, which is flat and somewhat sterile—is greatly diversified, the surface, on the whole, exhibiting greater variety of formation, with more frequent alternation of hill and plain, and a larger proportion of fertile country, than any other of the Colonies on the Australian mainland. The Australian Alps extend from New South Wales into the easterly division of Victoria. Mount Kosciusko, which is in New South Wales, is generally considered to be the culminating point of this range, but many of the peaks within the Victorian frontier very nearly approach, if they do not fully equal, this elevation. The average height of the mountain summits in this part of the Colony may be taken to be from 4,000 to 5,000 feet. From the Australian Alps high grounds extend, in a more or less westerly direction, throughout the Colony, and, as in New South Wales, separate its seaward division from the plains of the interior.

The coast region is watered by rivers of no great length (from one to two hundred miles) flowing directly into the Pacific and Southern Oceans; while the rivers of the inland region are mostly affluents of the Murray. With the exception of the Murray, none of the Victorian rivers are of very considerable size, and many of them are subject to remarkable fluctuations in their volume of water, often becoming in the hot season mere rivulets, and occasionally drying up altogether, to the great loss of stock-owners, whose cattle perish in great numbers from drought.

CAPES.—The principal headlands are Cape Howe, the most easterly point of the Colony, Ram Head, Cape Everard, Cape Conran, Wilson Promontory, the most southerly point of the Australian Continent, Cape Liptrap, Cape Paterson, Cape Woolamai, Cape Schanck, Point Nepean—at the entrance to Port Phillip—Cape Otway (usually the first land sighted by the emigrant), Cape Nelson and Cape Bridgewater.

BAYS AND STRAITS.—For its length of coast-line, Victoria possesses few considerable inlets. The most important are: Port Phillip Bay, with an area of about 800 square miles, the headwaters of which, under the name of Hobson's Bay, form the port of Melbourne; Corio Bay, a south-western extension of Port Phillip, on the shores of which Geelong is situated; with Portland Bay, Port Fairy, Lady Bay, Western Port, Corner Inlet, and Port Albert.

Bass's Strait, which divides Victoria from Tasmania, is about 120 miles in width. It is somewhat obstructed by coral reefs and by islands, the principal of which are, King's Island at its western extremity, and the Furneaux Group at its eastern extremity.

MOUNTAINS.—Victoria is traversed from east to west by a range of mountains which extends throughout its entire length, and divides it into two unequal parts. This range, which is part of the Australian Cordillera

is known under the general name of the Dividing Range, but it has received other distinguishing appellations in its various parts. The eastern division, which separates the district of Gipps Land from the basin of the Murray, is termed the Australian Alps. It has a height of from 1,000 to 7,000 feet, the principal peaks being Bogong (6,500 feet), Hotham (6,100 feet), The Twins (5,575 feet), Forest Hill (5,000 feet), and the Cobberas (6,025 feet). In the western part of the Colony portions of the range are known as the Grampians and the Pyrenees, the culminating point being Mount William, 5,600 feet high. The entire range lies at a distance of from 60 to 70 miles from the coast, and forms a water parting; the rivers which take a northerly direction joining the Murray, while those of the southern slope find their way to the Southern and Pacific Oceans. There are other minor ranges, of no great height, at right angles to the principal chain, which consist, for the most part, of heavily-timbered hills; although in the Geelong and Ballarat districts are numerous hills, destitute of trees, which are in a high state of cultivation. In addition to the mountain summits which have been mentioned, there are numerous others, with heights varying from 4,000 to above 5,000 feet, besides some of which the heights have not yet been determined.

RIVERS.—The rivers of Victoria, as has been before said, are rarely of any considerable magnitude, and few of them are navigable. Of the coast rivers, taking their rise on the southern slope of the Great Dividing Range, the principal are the Snowy, 120 miles long, the Latrobe, 130 miles, the Yarra Yarra, 150 miles, the Hopkins, 155 miles, and the Glenelg, 281 miles. The most important river of Victoria is, however, the Murray, 1,300 miles long, 980 miles of which flow along the Victorian frontier. This river is navigable, as is also its affluent, the Goulburn, 345 miles long. Other affluents of the Murray, within Victoria, are the Mitta-Mitta, 175 miles long, the Ovens, 140 miles, the Campaspe, 150 miles, and the Loddon, 225 miles. The Avoca, Wimmera, and a few other streams flowing to the northward, in the north-western corner of the Colony, terminate in inland lakes or salt marshes.

LAKES.—Victoria contains numerous salt and fresh-water lakes, all shallow, and many of them dry during the summer heats. The largest of these is Lake Corangamite, 57,700 acres in extent, the waters of which are extremely saline. Other bodies of water of considerable size are Lakes Hindmarsh and Tyrell, also salt, and Lakes Colac and Burrumbeet, fresh water. In Gipps Land, fringing the coast, are other considerable stretches of water, called locally lakes, but in reality lagoons, as they are approachable at certain times from the sea, from which they are only separated by a belt of sand. The largest of these are Lake Wellington, 34,500 acres, and Lake Victoria, 28,500 acres in extent.

DIVISIONS, TOWNS, &C.—The Colony is divided into four districts, called respectively Gipps Land, the Murray, Wimmera, and Loddon, and 37 counties. The counties form the more thickly populated part of the country, but the districts, since the introduction of railways, are undergoing rapid development The principal towns in Victoria are Melbourne, the capital, a large, well-built, and rapidly-increasing city on the banks of the Yarra-Yarra river, about four miles above the head of Port Phillip, with a population, including the suburbs, of upwards of 283,000; Ballarat, the city next in importance to Melbourne, an important mining centre,

with upwards of 37,000 inhabitants; Geelong, distant from Melbourne some 40 miles, at the head of an arm of Port Phillip, which forms its harbour, with a population of 22,000; Williamstown, the port of Melbourne, with 9,000 inhabitants; with Sandhurst (lately Bendigo) and Castlemaine, to the N.W. of Melbourne, each the centre of an important mining district. Portland, in the more western part of the Colony, is the principal place in the Portland Bay district. A short distance east of it is Belfast, or Port Fairy. Warrnambool, a thriving seaport, is farther to the eastward.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

GOVERNOR,
SIR WILLIAM F. CLEAVER ROBINSON, K.C.M.G.

CHIEF SECRETARY,
HON. JOHN COX BRAY.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. JOHN W. DOWNER, Q.C.

TREASURER,
HON. SIMPSON NEWLAND.

COMMISSIONER OF CROWN LANDS AND IMMIGRATION,
HON. JOHN HENDERSON HOWE.

COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC WORKS,
HON. JOHN BRODIE SPENCE.

MINISTER OF EDUCATION,
HON. JOHN ALEXANDER COCKBURN, M.D.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
HON. C. TODD, C.M.G.

CHIEF JUSTICE AND JUDGE OF VICE-ADMIRALTY COURT,
HON. SAMUEL JAMES WAY.

JUDGES,
HON. JAMES PENN BOUCANT, HON. WILLIAM HENRY BUNDEY.

AGENT-GENERAL IN LONDON,
SIR ARTHUR BLYTH, K.C.M.G.

ASSISTANT AGENT-GENERAL,
SAMUEL DEERING, J.P.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

THIS Colony occupies the central of the three sections into which Australia is in a north and south delineation portioned off: the right hand comprising Queensland with New South Wales and Victoria, and the left hand Western Australia. The term South Australia is geographically incorrect, and attempts have been made to have it changed to some other which would better describe its central position, the seemingly appropriate name of "Central Australia" having been suggested. The Act No. XCV. of William IV., establishing the Colony, declared that the portion of Australia between the 141st and 132nd degrees of East Longitude, and between the 26th degree of South Latitude, and the Southern Ocean, with all Bays and Gulfs belonging thereto, and all the adjacent Islands, should be constituted a Colony to be known as South Australia. The Colony of Western Australia, which was founded in 1829, had its eastern boundary 129 degrees East longitude; thus there was a belt of land of 3 degrees in width lying between the two Colonies, and known as "No Man's Land," a title pretty exactly describing its ownership, although it belonged actually to New South Wales, as did also, previous to their separate foundation, the whole of the other Australian Colonies. This strip of land, however, was annexed to South Australia in 1861 by the Imperial Government, and in 1863 an enormous tract of country north of latitude 26 degrees and between Queensland and Western Australia was also added, thus extending the jurisdiction of the Colony to the waters of the Indian Ocean.

The history of this Colony, as distinct from the other sections of the Island, may now be briefly referred to. It may be said to begin with the Marine Survey of the whole South Coast of the Island made by Lieutenant Flinders in H.M.S. *Investigator* early in 1802. The real discoverer of the country, however, from a colonising standpoint, was Captain Sturt, in 1829, who, following down the Murrumbidgee, found its junction with the large stream now called the Murray, up which he sailed, and turning, made a further discovery of the junction of the Darling. After incurring many dangers, he reached Lake Alexandrina, and crossing it arrived at the sea-mouth of this river system—the main stream is still called the Murray. With much hardship he successfully retraced his steps to the Murrumbidgee and thence to Sydney.

During this toilsome journey he formed an opinion that among and beyond the western ranges which he had observed from the Lower Murray, there must be rich tracts of country suitable for settlement; and urging this opinion on the Government at Sydney, Captain Barker, whose vessel was about to leave King George's Sound, was ordered to call at St. Vincent's

Gulf to test the accuracy of the views of Sturt. The vessel anchored to the north of Cape Jervis on the 17th April, 1831, and Captain Barker, landing, crossed the plains with one commissariat officer, and reached the summit of Mount Lofty, from which could be seen the whole rich tracts of land in the neighbourhood of Adelaide, and which at once pointed to the shores of St. Vincent's Gulf as a promising spot for a new settlement. Returning to the sea, however, by way of Lake Alexandrina, Captain Barker was unhappily attacked by natives and killed.

Sturt's discoveries, having attracted a good deal of attention in England, led to the formation of the South Australian Colonization Company, for the purpose of founding a new settlement unconnected with New South Wales. One of the main reasons for this measure was that a better land system than had hitherto prevailed might be provided at the outset; more especially so, as in the Swan River Settlement (Western Australia) large blocks of land had been granted to settlers who had no means to cultivate large holdings, and were without the necessary supply of labourers, the result being utter stagnation. It was accordingly determined that the new settlement should be founded on what was known as the Wakefield system, of which the main feature was the abolition of Land Grants, and the substitution of sales at a substantial price, the proceeds being devoted to the importation of labourers and the construction of roads and bridges,

The Commissioners named by the Act of 1834 were Colonel Torrens, F.R.S. (Chairman), W. A. McKinnon, M.P., Jacob Montefiore, W. Hutt, M.P., George Palmer, Jun., John Wright, George Fife Angus, and Samuel Mills, the Board being afterwards remodelled, so as to consist of 32 members. The Act was not operative until £35,000 had been actually raised by the sale of land in the settlement; £20,000 was to be raised by Bonds, and the amount invested in the British Funds, as a guarantee against any charges on the Imperial Government. The Commissioners were not actually appointed till May 1835, and the first vessel containing settlers sailed in February 1836, seven others following in the same year, one vessel containing the survey staff under Colonel Light. After careful consideration he fixed upon the site—some eight miles from the port—whereon the city of Adelaide now stands, as the most suitable for the future metropolis, and as the nucleus from whence the country should be opened up. South Australia is indeed specially fortunate in the site of its capital, which, with its fine natural harbour, its position on both sides of the river Torrens and its effective elevation, leaves nothing to be desired.

The Colony was proclaimed on December 28, 1836, by the first Governor, Captain Hindmarsh, R.N., an old Nile officer, who had served under Nelson with much distinction. He was less successful, however, as a civil administrator. Captain Hindmarsh was recalled in 1838, having held the Governorship a little more than eighteen months. He was succeeded by Captain Gawler, a Peninsular officer of great reputation, and who led the charge of the right wing of the 42nd Highlanders at Waterloo. The Surveys meanwhile had made much progress, the town lots being selected in March 1837, and the country sections in May 1838. He expended sums of money on public works, in advance of the requirement of the young community, and unauthorised by the Home Government; and his policy generally had the effect of centralising settlers in Adelaide, instead of encouraging the cultivation of the country

districts. The non-acceptance of his drafts on the British Treasury plunged the Colony into debt, and a financial crisis resulted in 1841–2, which ruined some of the Colonists. In the meantime, however, *i.e.*, at the end of 1840, he had been recalled, and Captain Grey (better known as Sir George Grey) was sent out to replace him. The survey during Governor Gawler's tenure of office made rapid progress, Captain Frome, R.E., with the assistance of a competent staff having pushed forward the work with great energy; and agriculture had been stimulated by the copious importation of cattle and sheep from the older colonies of New South Wales and Tasmania. It was during his administration too that Mr. Edward J. Eyre, subsequently Governor of Jamaica, accomplished his adventurous and important overland journey to King George's Sound, a distance of 1,000 miles.

To Sir George Grey belongs the credit of rescuing the Colony from the insolvency into which it had been plunged. While economising expenditure unflinchingly, he took care to carry on the more important works of his predecessor, and inaugurated a policy of road-making, the want of which had hitherto been a great drawback to the settlement of the rural districts. But personal vigour in the conduct of affairs was not the only force that aided the success of this able Governor. Mineral discoveries, which came in timely to his succour in the shape first of silver, and then of the world-famed Kapunda and Burra copper-mines, situated respectively some 50 and 100 miles from the capital, worked wonders in the resuscitation of a depleted land interest; and, through such resuscitation, rapidly helped on the recovery of the Colony's finances. In 1845, soon after the discovery of the last-named mine, Sir George was appointed Governor of New Zealand, leaving South Australia "amidst the regret of all the Colonists, but those who could not forgive the retrenchment policy from which they had suffered, or a few, whom, in the exercise of his administrative powers, he had personally offended."

The next Governor was Colonel Robe, another military officer, who committed the mistake (which was a grievous one in view of the peculiar political constitution of this Colony, considering that one of its first fundamental principles was that of No State Church) of proposing the official recognition of the Church of England, in accordance with the precedent so long observed by the mother country. Colonel Robe, moreover, by attempting to enforce a royalty on minerals, a course contravening the principle of land sales adopted by the first Commissioner in founding the Colony—namely —that "all minerals went with the land they sold," aroused the opposition of the Colonists. This Governor was personally liked, being hospitable and kind-hearted and, under him, the mining and agricultural interests advanced materially; but nevertheless he was sometimes at issue with the settlers, and finally was removed at his own request to a sphere of activity more suited to his tastes and special abilities. The tenure of Sir Henry Young, the next Governor, who was appointed in 1848, was fruitful in events of great interest to the material prosperity of the country. The first of these was the great gold discovery of 1851, which so depleted the pastoral pursuits of South Australia as to lead to a momentary crisis. Another event was the opening up of trade with the Riverina district of New South Wales; and a third was the establishment of District Councils. Sir Henry was transferred to Tasmania in 1854, and was succeeded in

1855 by Sir Richard Macdonell. Sir Richard held office for nearly seven years, during which period the Colony acquired its new constitution, and the long and necessarily excited discussions connected with its adoption were the main features of his governorship. The new Legislature set itself to work in right earnest for the reform of the Land Laws, and passed the Real Property Act, introduced by Sir Robert Torrens, which did away with much of the cumbrous procedure with regard to the sale of property, and has ever since been studied, as it deserves to be, by reformers in that direction. The discovery of the Wallaroo Copper mines in 1860 gave another impetus to the development of the country, followed, as it was, by the agricultural settlement of the district. Exploration too was carried on extensively by Mr. Babbage, Major Warburton, and Mr. Stuart, leading to some very advantageous discoveries, in consequence of which the Northern Territory was annexed to South Australia proper. The first Railway was opened from Adelaide to the port soon after Sir Richard's arrival, and before he left, lines were completed to Gawler and Kapunda. Many new buildings were also erected, and a good deal of attention given to the lighting of the coasts.

Sir Dominic Daly, perhaps the most popular of all the Governors, assumed office in 1862. His first trouble was with the Judicial Bench; and Mr. Justice Boothby, who had manifested his dislike to Colonial enactments, which he took every opportunity of airing, and his fault-finding with acts passed by its Legislature, gave great offence in the Colony. After several petitions the obnoxious Judge was removed from office. Another event which occupied a good deal of the new Governor's period of office was the annexation of the Northern Territory just referred to. The determination of the money to be imposed as rent upon the pastoral lands held by the "squatters" was also a matter which involved much trouble. The Duke of Edinburgh, the first member of the Royal Family who had visited Australia, arrived at Adelaide during Sir Dominic's rule, being everywhere received with the greatest enthusiasm. During the last year of the administration of this universally popular Governor his health had rapidly failed, and, to the deep regret of the Colonists, he died at Government House in February, 1868.

The limits of this work will not allow us to do more than give a very cursory notice of the more important events between his death and the present time. Sir James Fergusson, the next, and a most able Governor, held office until 1873. Several reforms in the land interest were carried through in this period, and a good deal was done in the way of exploration and the construction of railways; another feature being the laying down of the great Trans-Continental telegraph, and the consequent placing of the Australian Continent in direct telegraphic communication with the United Kingdom.

Sir Anthony Musgrave succeeded to the Governorship in 1873, and at once inaugurated a spirited public works' policy. Roads, Railways, Tramways, Telegraphs, and Harbours received careful attention, and, while the outlay has been heavy, it is gratifying to learn that it has been met in many instances by a substantial financial return. An Education Act was passed in 1875, which had for its object the placing of the State system of Education upon a sounder basis. A new tariff was also introduced, and some amendments made in the Criminal Law. Sir Anthony

was transferred to Queensland in 1877, and was replaced by Sir William Cairns, who resigned his appointment almost immediately, owing to ill-health. The choice of the new Governor was no doubt determined in a great measure by military considerations, the defences of our Colonies having been for some time past under discussion. It fell upon Sir William Jervois, an engineer officer of the highest distinction, and upon him was laid the additional duty of providing a scheme for fortifying the natural defences of the Colony and reorganising its military resources. Forts were constructed for marine defence, Volunteer Corps were enrolled, and a war-vessel provided. Another important measure passed during his tenure of office was the Crown Lands Consolidation Act, which made material alterations on the previous system. Railway construction was continued with much zeal, and population, trade, and the value of property all increased rapidly. Sir William was transferred to New Zealand in 1883, greatly to the regret of the South Australian Colonists, as he was at once an able administrator and popular Governor.

Sir William Cleaver Robinson, the present Governor, has worked indefatigably to promote all objects for the benefit of the Colony, and is universally esteemed. The mining interests at the date of the compilation of this paper (1886) are not very flourishing, owing to the universal depression of trade, and the consequent low price of ores; nor is the financial condition all that could be desired. It has been said, however, that South Australia may well look forward with confidence to the future, the industries of the Colony being practically in their infancy, and her vast natural resources almost untouched. "This is a 'land of corn and wine and oil,' where all fruits flourish, where the mineral possessions of the Colony are great and only await development."

The Constitution of South Australia was granted by the Act 13 & 14 Vict. c. 59. The Executive, like the rest of the Australian Colonies (except Western Australia), consists of a Governor nominated by the Crown, and subject to the jurisdiction of one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State. He is assisted by an Executive Council, consisting of six Ministers, and some specially appointed members, upon whose advice he acts, except in a case in which it would be contrary to his instructions to do so; in such a contingency it is incumbent on him to refer the matter to Her Majesty through the Secretary of State. The Governor has the power of appointing the Ministers, of proroguing and dissolving Parliament, and has the prerogative of mercy in Criminal Cases.

The Ministry consists of six menbers, viz., the Chief Secretary, Treasurer, Attorney-General, Commissioner of Public Works, Commissioner of Crown Lands, and the Minister of Education.

The Parliament consists of two Houses, the Legislative Council or Upper House, and the House of Assembly. The power of both Houses is equal, except that, as at Westminster, money bills must originate in the lower chamber. The members of the Upper House are elected for nine years, one-third retiring every three years. They must be either natural-born or naturalised subjects of the Queen, resident in the Colony for three years in the former case, and five in the latter. A property qualification is required in order to vote for the Council; but the Assembly is elected upon the basis of manhood suffrage, every man, whether natural born or naturalised, being entitled to vote, if over 21

years old. Qualification as an elector also qualifies for a candidature for the Assembly, except in the case of clergymen, ministers of religion, judges, or Government officials, all of whom are ineligible. There are upwards of 30,000 electors on the roll of the Legislative Council, and over 58,000 on that for the Assembly.

The administration of the Law devolves upon a Chief Justice and two Puisne Judges, who hold office *quam diu se bene gesserint*, as in England, and can only be removed by Her Majesty upon the Petition of both Houses of the Colonial Parliament. There is in addition a Judge for the Northern Territory, his jurisdiction being limited to that Province. Bankruptcy is in the hands of a Commissioner, with large powers of commitment. Local Courts, answering to our County Courts, exist to the number of about 70, and are presided over by 15 Stipendiary Magistrates, some of whom go on circuit and are established throughout the Colony. Benches of Magistrates are constituted in different parts of the country, dealing with much the same questions as those at home.

The highest Court is the "Local Court of Appeal," which consists of the Governor and Executive Council, with the exception of the Attorney-General.

For the purposes of Municipal Government, South Australia is divided into 30 municipalities. The Mayor and Councillors are elected annually on the 1st of December by the whole body of ratepayers, two Councillors for each ward, one retiring annually, but is eligible for re-election. The city of Adelaide has a Court of Aldermen for the assistance of the Mayor, in addition to the ordinary Councillors.

The climate of South Australia is characterised by the usual dryness of the whole island. The average rainfall at Adelaide, from the years 1839 to 1880 inclusive, was 21·3 inches. The amount varies greatly from year to year, the heaviest being that of 1875 with 31·45 inches, and the smallest in the following year—13·43 inches only being recorded. In the hill districts the quantity is much greater, while on the plains it is less, and is attended with a considerable element of uncertainty. The dry region begins some two hundred miles north of Adelaide, and forms a belt between the fertile lands of the South and the regions of the tropical rains.

There are four hot months in the Colony, viz., December, January, February and March; but the sultry weather during these is not often continuous. The temperature in the height of summer is sometimes over 100° in the shade, and during the prevalence of the hot winds from the north the heat on the plains is great for a day or two at a time, although the dryness of the atmosphere renders the heat more endurable than it is in a tropical or in a moist climate. Extreme hot weather, however, in any summer, rarely lasts more than two or three days. In the cold months, June, July, and August, the temperature is never very low, and it may be held that during eight months in the year the climate of the Colony is most enjoyable. The climate generally may be said to resemble that of South Italy, hence its suitability for the vine, olive, and other fruits, which require dry warmth for their perfection. Wheat cannot be grown in quantity in the drier districts. Drainage of farm lands is rarely necessary in South Australia.

For quality South Australia is pre-eminently a wheat-growing country, and may be termed the Granary of Australia, exporting as it does wheat

and flour in large quantities to its sister Colonies, so much so that both Victoria and West Australia have imposed protective duties on both these products; but the Colony also has many facilities for stock raising, while, as will presently be seen, the culture of the olive and the vine, as well as extensive market-gardening, is rapidly advancing.

The main cereal crop is wheat, though barley gives good returns, and could be grown to more advantage were it not for the somewhat restricted demand. The average wheat yield is said to be about 8 bushels an acre, but in giving this it should be borne in mind that it includes lands to the north of the reliable rainfall, where the crop is necessarily scanty. The production of wheat in 1884 was 14,621,755 bushels. Oats are not a great success, as they require a cooler and moister climate than South Australia in the main possesses. Potatoes are grown in quantity near Mount Gambier, and flax is being tried in the Barossa district and other parts. Hop culture also is receiving some attention.

Horticultural productions are well suited to the Colony. Apples and pears will grow almost everywhere, oranges in many situations, and the vine thrives luxuriantly. Strawberries and raspberries do well in the hill districts, while the olive is daily becoming a source of increasing wealth, the olive oil of South Australia being pronounced equal to any in the world, and obtained the warmest recognition at the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876, and at the Exhibition of Paris 1878, and at all subsequent Exhibitions. Sericulture is, strange to say, almost non-existent. The mulberry thrives well, as in other parts of Australia, and everything, except perhaps cheap labour, points to success in the raising of silkworms. Perhaps the most important of the products of the Colony is destined to be yielded by the vine. Wine-making has now thoroughly taken root, and the wine has met with much approval in Europe; several enterprising colonists of high position have visited the wine-growing districts of France and Spain, and have not only introduced into South Australia cuttings of vines of the finest varieties, but have analysed the soils of famous vineyards with the view to the establishment of the vine in South Australia under precisely similar conditions. From this doubtless results that the wines of South Australia have obtained a steadfast position in the market. As soon as such wine can be made in sufficiently large quantities for the brands to be readily obtainable, there is little doubt that they will be as well known in the old country as the productions of France and Spain; and it may be assumed that they will continue to preserve their high repute as being absolutely pure vintage wines. Raisins of the finest quality are dried without difficulty, and the currant-grape grows readily and well, as do also almonds and figs, but the art of drying the latter does not appear to have been yet acquired by the settlers. A good deal of attention is now being turned to forestry, with excellent results.

With regard to live stock, the principal object for which sheep are kept is the production of wool. The breed of sheep most in favour is the Merino, which is now so thoroughly acclimatised that the Colonists regard it as fixed, and decline to import stud Merinos from Europe, for fear of *deteriorating* their own strain. A high proof this of the wonderful instincts of the Anglo-Saxon! The long-woolled English breeds, however, are kept where the pasture lands are suitable, as are also some few Cotswolds and South Downs, though apparently the last-named breed does not meet

with the same favour as its bovine counterpart the Shorthorn. The number of sheep in the Colony in 1884 was upwards of 6½ millions. The value of the wool produced in 1884 was £2,618,626.

The Shorthorn breed of cattle is as popular in South Australia as in England, and some remarkably fine herds of it are to be found. Herefords, too, have their admirers, and in a new Colony where keep is cheap, the White-faces should be able in some degree to hold their own for grazing purposes against their more precocious rivals. The number of horned cattle in 1884 was 389,726. Dairy-farming is chiefly confined to the neighbourhood of large towns, where it constitutes, as in England, an important and profitable business. Horses, of course, are required both for work and sport, and number over 164,000; bullocks being now generally superseded. The Australian racehorse is usually only crossed with good English blood, but is an animal of great staying power. Exportations of horses are made to India. Draught-horses are largely bred, the breed being kept up by costly importations from the United Kingdom. Clydesdales seem to commend themselves most generally.

As has already been stated in the historical portion of this notice, the founders of the Colony of South Australia were very hotly opposed to any religion being recognised by the State; and although a Colonial Chaplain arrived with the first Governor in 1836, and was succeeded by another, the appointment was always looked upon with great dislike by many influential Colonists, who lost no opportunity of protesting against it. The Chaplaincy was accordingly not renewed after the death of the second occupant.

Governor Robe indeed carried a measure for aiding religious enterprise in 1846, but the opposition to it was so violent that the Act was repealed in 1851, since which date no further attempt had been made in this direction, consequently the voluntary system "prevails throughout the Colony."

The Church of England is under the control of the Bishop of Adelaide, the endowment of the See being provided by the munificence of the Baroness Burdett-Coutts. The number of clergy is 54. The Census returns for 1881 showed the following statistics of the Religious profession of South Australia:

Church of England	75,812	Baptists	13,979
Roman Catholics	42,628	Other Protestants	45,222
Presbyterians	17,917	Jews	762
Methodists	52,788	Pagans	4,151
Independents	7,908	Residue	15,698

From the foregoing remarks on Religion, the System of Education prevalent in the Colony can be accurately anticipated by most persons. It is essentially a liberal policy, compulsory, State-aided, and secular, under the control of the Minister of Education. The main features of the system are so similar to those established by the Elementary Education Act in this country, that it is unnecessary to refer to them at length. School-fees, however, seem somewhat higher, being fixed at 4*d.* a week for children under five, and 6*d.* for those above that age. In 1884 there were 384 Government, and 363 Private Schools, having 768 and 767 teachers respectively. The number of children on the books of the Government Schools was 31,892 and in those of the Private Schools 13,626.

Intermediate and Higher Education is provided for in the High Schools and Academies, the oldest of these being St. Peter's School, founded in 1848, and handsomely endowed by Captain Allen, Dean Farrell and others. It was established for the benefit of members of the Church of England, but is open to scholars of other denominations. Girls' Schools are plentiful, and generally speaking, of a superior order, but their high fees seem to have had the effect of driving many to the Government Institutions.

There is one University, that of Adelaide, founded in 1875, with an annual Grant from the Colonial Parliament. The University has chairs for classics, English (with Mental and Moral Philosophy combined), Mathematics, Natural Science, and another for Law, with various Lectureships. Female Students are admitted, and the University conducts examinations for admission to the South Australian Bar. It owes its foundation to the munificence of two leading Colonists, Sir W. W. Hughes, chief proprietor of the Wallaroo and Moonta Mines, and Sir Thomas Elder, both of whom gave £20,000 for the purpose, the former on condition that there should be no religious instruction, and the latter without any such conditions.

A National Art Gallery has also been founded with the South Australian Institute, as well as a Museum and Schools for Painting and Design.

The trade of the Colony, as distinct from the manufactures, consists principally in the export of its raw agricultural and mineral products; wine, however, is beginning to figure to a considerable extent in the returns, and its export is on the increase. The imports are Manchester and Birmingham goods, farm implements, beer, spirits, food adjuncts, scientific instruments, articles of luxury, &c. The total value of the imports for the year 1884 was £5,749,353, and of the exports £6,623,704. The industries of South Australia do not appear to be very important from an English standpoint, and are mainly confined to the trades dependent on agriculture.

Tariffs are much the same as in New South Wales, and the remarks made with regard to them will apply to this Colony also. In addition to these, South Australia imposes an *ad valorem* duty on certain articles of drapery, on furniture, vehicles, drugs, earthenware, jewellery, leather, and stationery.

The customs dues, and the railways, which are all owned by the State, constitute the main items in the revenue, the rents and licenses of crown lands and other miscellaneous items bringing it up to £2,024,928 in 1884, of this amount quite one-half is derived from the sub-heads first mentioned. The expenditure for the same period was £2,163,149, a large proportion of this expenditure was upon reproductive public works. The greater portion of the public debt of the Colony has been applied to the construction of railways and other reproductive works.

Up to June 1884, there were 1,032 miles of railway in the Colony, which had cost about 7¼ millions, their working expenses for the year amounting to £369,000, and their revenue to £560,500, thus leaving a profit of £191,500. The cost of lines under construction is estimated at something like 2¾ millions.

The number of shipping entries inwards for the year were—British, 768,301 tons; Foreign, 141,034 tons.

South Australia, as yet known, is not rich in the precious metals, as

compared with Victoria, but it possesses vast deposits of copper and iron, and has some good silver lead mines. The mineral resources await further exploration for their development. It may be well to give a short notice of each in the same manner as has been done in the case of the other Colonies.

Gold.—Gold has been found in small quantities from quartz and alluvial workings in various districts of the Colonies, from the Northern Territory to near the Capital. The "Territory" mines are by far the most important, and their working is being rapidly pushed on.

Silver.—Silver ore is not abundant, and this metal is principally obtained from the silver-lead mines, which are chiefly situated in the south part of the Colony near Cape Jervis. The best known mines are the Talisker, George and Campbell's Creek.

Tin.—This metal is only found in small quantities, and no systematic mining for it is carried on.

Copper.—This is by far the most important mineral of South Australia, and is to it what Gold is to Victoria. Large deposits of it are found in lodes wherever the metamorphic and palæozoic rocks occur. The following extract from a work written by Mr. J. P. Stow will present the reader with the salient features of this industry:—"The Kapunda copper mine, about fifty miles from Adelaide, was found in 1842, and made the fortunes of its discoverers. Ore is still being raised from it, and fresh deposits may at any time be met with on the property. The Montacute copper mine, in the Mount Lofty Range, about a dozen miles from Adelaide, was discovered at the end of 1843, and early next year the land was sold by the Government at auction. During 1844, 600 tons of rich copper were raised from this property, and for some years there was a good output, but the lodes were apparently worked out, and the proprietors would not risk the cost of exploratory working.

But the mineral discovery that marked a new era in the history of the Colony was the Burra, which at one time supported a large population; afforded employment to thousands of miners, mechanics, labourers, carters, and tradesmen; attracted population from abroad, and gave a wonderful stimulus to South Australian progress. This mine, a hundred miles from Adelaide, in a northerly direction, was discovered in 1845. Some years ago the property was sold to a new company, and it is now being worked. The lodes ran out, and the company grew tired of the expenditure incurred in trying to pick them up again. This was the last important mine of which the Government parted with the freehold. It was worked with grand results till the Victorian diggings drew the miners away in 1851–2; was reopened after the gold fever subsided, and worked for more than twenty years.

During 1860, and the two following years, the great cupreous discoveries of Yorke's Peninsula were made. The Wallaroo mine was found by the lessee of the sheep run on which it was situated, Mr. (now Sir) William Watson Hughes; and there quickly set in a mining mania, most of the discoveries disappointing expectations sooner or later. The far-famed Moonta was opened a year or two later. These mines have been working more than twenty years, but neither show signs of exhaustion.

In the north, high hopes in days gone by were entertained of the Yudanamutana, the Blinman, and other copper mines, some of which are

now in the hands of an English company that is spending money freely in their development, while others are being tested by smaller associations. Operations are proceeding on one property near Farina, and the Great Northern Railway from Port Augusta, will render it practicable to work profitably, mines that otherwise would be worth nothing.

Bismuth.—This metal is found at Murninnie and Balhannah, and in conjunction with copper at Daly and Stanley.

Iron.—Iron is known to exist in large quantities, and a bonus of £2,000 has been offered by Parliament for the production of the first 500 tons of pig iron.

Coal.—Coal no doubt exists in the Colony, and a bonus of £4,000 has also been offered for the discovery of the first payable coal field.

Marble and Bitumen are the only other important minerals.

The military defence of South Australia is entirely composed of a small force of Volunteers, and a Rifle Association, which embraces however, cavalry, artillery, and infantry. The total, inclusive of officers, is under 1,500 men. The National Rifle Association is composed of about 1,000 men, and is a very popular and efficient corps. Two land batteries have been constructed to resist attacks by sea, one at Glanville, and the other at Largs Bay, the latter having some heavy armaments. The Colony owns one ironclad, the "Protector," to supplement the land defences. The present system of defence was carried out by Sir William Jervois, well known for similar enterprises in the other Australian Colonies.

The population of South Australia at the last census, inclusive of the Northern Territory, numbered 279,865, of which 149,530 were males, and 130,335 females. These numbers do not include Aborigines, who numbered 6,346, of whom 3,478 were males, and 2,668 females. The increase over the last quinquennial census, was 66,594, being at the rate of over 31 per cent. The birthplaces of the population are South Australia 163,000; United Kingdom, 88,000; other Australian Colonies, 9,000—the remainder being foreign—the Germans and Chinese largely preponderating.

The estimated population on the 1st August 1885 was 320,057. The increase of births over deaths in the previous year was 7,038, and it is satisfactory to note a tendency towards an equalization of the sexes.

"South Australia can now point to the results of half a century of colonial enterprise and labour—to the energy, patience, and sagacity, that out of a wilderness occupied by a few wandering savages, who did not cultivate a rod of ground, have built cities and towns, established harbours, constructed thirteen hundred miles of railway, and thousands of miles of macadamized roads, spanned the continent with the electric wire; raised corn in abundance for a considerable population, and shipped a large surplus to distant lands; planted orchards and vineyards; worked valuable mines that are known throughout the world, stocked the country with millions of sheep, built up a trade that in proportion to the population is hardly equalled by that of any other people; founded a commonwealth with the institutions of a free and Christian people rejoicing in their privileges, and notwithstanding the defects and inequalities belonging to every human society, possessing the comforts, luxuries, and refinements of older and larger communities."

GEOGRAPHY.

POSITION AND BOUNDARIES.—South Australia, at this day, comprises all that portion of the Australian Continent which lies between Victoria, New South Wales and Queensland on the east, and Western Australia on the west. It is bounded on the south by the Southern Ocean, on the north by the Indian Ocean, on the west by an imaginary line drawn along the meridian of 129°, which separates it from Western Australia, and on the east by a line drawn along the meridian of 141° up to the 26th parallel of latitude, and continued along that parallel in a westerly direction to the meridian of 138°, which afterwards becomes the boundary between that part of South Australia known as the Northern territory and the Colony of Queensland. The total area of the Colony, which, by successive additions, has been considerably enlarged since its foundation in 1834, is now estimated at about 903,690 square miles, or 578,361,600 acres. Its greatest length is 1,850 miles, and its greatest breadth 650 miles. As the idea of size is best brought home to us by comparison, it may be said that South Australia, as it exists in our own day, is about fifteen times the size of England and Wales, and nearly twenty-nine times the size of Scotland. It is probable that at no distant date the boundary line between South Australia and Victoria may be altered, as a narrow strip of land, only 1½ miles wide, but between 200 and 300 miles in length, is claimed by South Australia from Victoria.

NATURAL FEATURES.—It will at once be seen, on reference to the map, that the name given to this Colony does not correctly indicate its geographical position, as the greater part of Victoria lies further to the south. The southern portion, which is frequently spoken of as South Australia proper, to distinguish it from the recently acquired, and only partially explored, northern territory, presents a very diversified aspect, having great stretches of agricultural lands, mountain ranges, well wooded, of enormous length, mingled with waterless and sterile plains. These last are, however, believed to be exceptionally rich in metalliferous deposits. The far northern country, until quite recently, was little known, except in the immediate vicinity of the tracks of the few explorers who at various times have made efforts to open it up for settlement, but much has been learnt as to its capabilities since the Continent was traversed, from one side to the other, by the parties engaged in the construction of the Australian Overland Telegraph. So far from being the stony desert which it was so long supposed to be, it was found to contain well-grassed country, fairly watered, and capable of being used for pastoral purposes, if not for tillage. In the extreme north, there is without question a large amount of land, well watered, which is adapted for grazing purposes, and for the cultivation of those vegetable productions which, like the sugar cane, can only be grown successfully under favourable climatic conditions. This portion of the Colony is, moreover, believed to possess mineral deposits of very considerable value.

CAPES.—The principal headlands on the southern coast are Cape Adieu, Point Fowler, Point Brown and Cape Bauer, at opposite sides of Streaky Bay, Cape Westall, Cape Radstock, Cape Finnis, Point Whidbey, Point Avoid, Cape Wiles, and Cape Catastrophe—all to the westward of Spencer Gulf;

Cape Donnington, Cape Bolingbroke, Cape Elizabeth, and Corny Point, in Spencer Gulf; Cape Spencer, and Trowbridge Point, in the south of Yorke Peninsula; Cape Jervis, at the eastern entrance to the Gulf of St. Vincent; with Cape Jaffa, Cape Lannes, Cape Buffon, and Cape Northumberland, farther to the eastward. Cape Borda, from which the arrival of the mail-boats is signalled, Cape Bedout, Cape Marsden, and Cape Willoughby, are on Kangaroo Island, which lies at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Vincent. On the northern coast of South Australia the headlands are very numerous, the principal being Cape Hay, Cape Dombey, Cape Ford, Cape Blaze, Cape Fright, Cape Hotham, Cape Van Diemen, De Courcy Point, Hull Point, Hawkesbury Point, Cape Stewart, Cape Wessel, Cape Wilberforce, Cape Arnhem, Cape Grey, and Cape Shield.

ISLANDS.—On the south coast the principal island is Kangaroo Island, at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Vincent, so called from the great numbers of kangaroos found there by the first settlers. This island is 85 miles long, by about 30 miles broad, and is interesting from the first settlement of the South Australian Company, who were the earliest colonisers of this part of Australia. Other islands on this coast are Nuyt's Archipelago, the Investigator Group, the Whidby Islands, Thistle Island and the Gambier Isles (at the entrance to Spencer Gulf), Sir Joseph Banks' Group, Wauraltie Island, and Hindmarsh Island, in Lake Victoria or Alexandrina. On the north coast the islands are much more numerous than on the south coast, and many of them are of considerable size. The most important are Groote Eylandt, the Wessel Islands, Melville Island, and Bathurst Island.

BAYS AND STRAITS.—The south-western coast of South Australia forms a portion of the great indentation known as the Great Australian Bight. This is broken here and there by minor inlets, such as Fowler Bay, Denial Bay, Streaky Bay, Anxious Bay, and Coffin Bay. The most important inlets on the south coast are, however, Spencer Gulf and the Gulf of St. Vincent, deep estuaries which penetrate a considerable distance into the interior. Kangaroo Island lies at the mouth of the latter gulf, and divides the approach to it into two straits, called respectively Investigator Strait and Backstairs Passage. Both Spencer Gulf and the Gulf of St. Vincent contain many smaller inlets, of which the principal is Hardwicke Bay, on the south-eastern shore of Spencer Gulf. To the eastward of Kangaroo Island are Encounter Bay, Lacepede Bay, and Rivoli Bay.

Among the inlets on the northern coast are Limmen Bight, Blue Mud Bay, Caledon Bay—which form part of the Gulf of Carpentaria; Melville Bay, Buckingham Bay, Castlereagh Bay, Mountnorris Bay, Port Essington, Van Diemen Gulf, Port Darwin, Anson Bay, and Queen's Channel. On this coast the principal straits are Cumberland Strait, between two of the Wessel Islands; Apsley Strait, which divides Bathurst Island from Melville Island; and Clarence Strait and Dundas Strait, by which Melville Island is separated from the mainland.

MOUNTAINS.—From Cape Jervis (at the south-eastern extremity of the Gulf of St. Vincent) a range of hills extends in a northerly direction, nearly parallel to the eastern shores of the Gulf. This is known as the Mount Lofty Range, from the hill of that name, 2,334 feet high, in the immediate neighbourhood of Adelaide, which forms its culminating point. A northern

prolongation, which extends past the head of Spencer Gulf to Lake Blanche, under the 29th parallel of latitude, is styled the Flinders Range. The highest points are Mounts Remarkable, Brown, Arden, and Searle, each of which attains an elevation of slightly over 3,000 feet. In addition to these are the Hummocks, which commence near the head of St. Vincent's Gulf, and continue northward in a direction nearly parallel with the eastern coast of Spencer Gulf; the Gawler Range, to the south of Lake Gairdner; and the Stuart Range, to the north-west of Lake Torrens. A succession of low hills has been found throughout the whole of the route taken by the Overland Telegraph, but neither here nor in the partially-explored northern territory have discoveries been made of peaks attaining more than a very moderate elevation. In the south-eastern part of the Colony near the frontiers of Victoria, are several isolated peaks, which are evidently extinct volcanoes.

RIVERS.—Almost the only considerable river in the southern portion of South Australia is the Murray, which has the whole of its lower course in that Colony. This river has its outlet in Lake Alexandrina, from which it enters the sea by a narrow and difficult navigable opening called the Murray Mouth. Other rivers in this part of the Colony are the Wakefield and the Gawler, flowing into St. Vincent's Gulf; the Hindmarsh and the Inman, flowing into Encounter Bay; and the Torrens, from which the city of Adelaide obtains its water supply. The rivers of the northern territory, of which the Adelaide, the Victoria, and the Roper are the best known, are more important. The Roper especially has been found to be a deep river, navigable for ocean-going vessels of considerable size for at least 100 miles inland.

LAKES.—South Australia, in its southern portion, contains numerous lakes, some of them of very considerable size. The principal of these are Lake Torrens, 90 miles north of Spencer Gulf: Lake Eyre, still further to the northward, Lake Gairdner, and Lake Frome, all salt; with Lakes Alexandrina and Albert, through which the Murray flows, which are fresh or nearly so. These last communicate with the sea, and are navigable for steamers of light draught. Lake Gregory and Lake Blanche, which lie to the south-east of Lake Eyre, are believed to be connected with it in wet seasons. Lake Amadeus, of immense size, which belongs partly to Western Australia, has not been thoroughly explored. The Coorong, on the south-eastern part of the coast, is a long, narrow arm of the sea, which runs parallel with the coast-line for nearly a hundred miles. In the south-eastern district there are several volcanic freshwater lakes, of which the principal is the Blue Lake, lying in the crater of an extinct volcano known as Mount Gambier.

DIVISIONS, TOWNS, &C.—The settled portion of the Colony is divided into counties (of which there are 37), hundreds, blocks of country thrown open for agricultural settlement, and district councils. There are also four pastoral districts, the united area of which is upwards of 320,000 square miles. The chief towns are:—Adelaide, the capital, a thriving, well-built city, situated about 8 miles from the eastern shore of St. Vincent Gulf, on the river Torrens, an insignificant stream, which has, however, been considerably improved by the recent construction of a dam; Port Adelaide, which, as its name implies, is the port of the city of Adelaide; Port Elliott, near the entrance to Lake Alexandrina from the

sea; Glenelg, on the shores of Holdfast Bay, an inlet on the eastern side of St. Vincent Gulf; and Wallaroo, near the shores of Spencer Gulf, the seaport of the copper-mining district of that name. Port Augusta, at the head of Spencer Gulf, is a place of considerable trade, and Kapunda, Kooringa, Gawler, Mount Pleasant, Mount Barber, Strathalbyn, Narracoorte, Mount Gambier, and others are important interior townships.

Adelaide is now furnished with all the conveniences of modern city life, although it numbers in population a mere handful of people—only 43,000 souls, or about 100,000 or 110,000 souls, including the population of the suburbs. Its streets are broad and well made; many of its footpaths are paved with slates or tar paving. It is lit with gas by a private company, which has proved a remunerative undertaking. Its water supply is a very complete and successful scheme, and within the last two or three years the city has had applied to it a system of deep drainage, which has tended to make Adelaide one of the cleanest cities in the southern hemisphere. It possesses baths and botanic gardens, which latter have been so tastefully laid out, and are so well kept, as to be the theme of general admiration. It has two markets—one the property of the city corporation, the other belonging to a private company. It is the seat of a university, and possesses also a museum, public library, art-gallery, and circulating library; and amongst other public buildings it has Government offices, hospitals for the sick, insane, and destitute, numerous churches, and public and private schools, three theatres, a fine post office, and is extensively served with postal, telegraphic, and telephone conveniences.

QUEENSLAND.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
SIR ANTHONY MUSGRAVE, G.C.M.G.

PREMIER AND COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. SAMUEL WALKER GRIFFITH, Q.C.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. ARTHUR RUTLEDGE.

SECRETARY FOR PUBLIC WORKS AND MINES,
HON. W. MILES.

SECRETARY FOR PUBLIC LANDS,
HON. C. B. DUTTON.

TREASURER,
HON. J. R. DICKSON.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
HON. THOMAS MACDONALD PATERSON.

SECRETARY FOR PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
HON. B. B. MORETON.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
SIR CHARLES LILLEY.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. GEORGE ROGERS HARDING, HON. CHARLES STUART MEIN.

AGENT-GENERAL IN LONDON,
HON. JAMES F. GARRICK, Q.C., C.M.G., M.L.C.
Secretary: CHARLES S. DICKEN.

QUEENSLAND.

ALTHOUGH Captain Cook sailed along the eastern shore of what now constitutes the Colony of Queensland, and named Moreton Bay and a few other places, he did not do anything in the way of exploring the interior, and little or nothing was known of this part of Australia until Lieutenant Flinders was sent by Governor Phillip in 1779 to explore Moreton Bay, and see if it afforded any navigable inlet into the interior of the country, Flinders failed to find any such inlet, owing no doubt to the journey having been undertaken in the season wherein the estuary of the Brisbane is choked up by the large quantity of detritus brought down by that river, and he accordingly reported that he did not believe there was any inlet between 24° and 29° south latitude. This opinion has of course not been substantiated by the events which followed, and the controversy was finally set at rest by the exploration of Mr. Oxley, who was ordered to survey and chart the shores of this Colony in 1823. This led to the discovery of the mouth of the river now known as the Brisbane, and the neighbourhood was of so promising a character that it was at once decided to form a penal settlement at it. A batch of convicts, consisting of the most desperate and incorrigible criminals, was accordingly sent there in 1824, and this batch was soon followed by others, until the Moreton Bay settlement had received pretty well all the most violent characters that could not be kept under sufficient restraint at headquarters. The military officers in charge of the settlement were left to do pretty much as they chose, and some of them seem to have treated the convicts harshly enough, notably Captain Logan, who was murdered by the natives, it was believed at the instigation of the convicts, during his tenure of office.

Four years after the establishment of Moreton Bay as a penal settlement, the celebrated explorer Allan Cunningham discovered the Darling Downs, and the fine pasturage afforded by these soon attracted the attention of *bonâ fide* settlers to the advantages of the new Colony. The New South Wales squatters arrived shortly after in large numbers, bringing police with them for protection, and obtained some of the convicts as shepherds and labourers. The aborigines, however, looked with no friendly eyes on the new comers, or the live stock they brought with them, and frequent conflicts occurred between them and the white settlers. Judging from accounts which have come down to us, there seem to have been many acts of undoubted oppression, perhaps incident to so young a settlement, where the bulk of the white men were convicts, and where lynch law was the earliest code adopted. A well-known writer thus illustrates in dark colours the savage acts which happened in the early days of the Colony :—

"Not intimidated either by the presence of the convicts or by that of the Government troopers, the natives 'rushed' the squatters' runs, stole their sheep, killed their cattle, and helped themselves to whatever else they liked. But the Government police organised a band of natives to act with them as troopers, determining to have their revenge, and the acts of atrocity perpetrated by this mixed band, whether with the knowledge or consent of the squatters or not, were perfectly horrifying. On one occasion, for instance, it was reported that a white man had been murdered by two blacks, and that this crime must neither be palliated nor tolerated—neither be allowed to pass by unavenged, nor be left uninquired into, as had been the case with the murder of Captain Logan. But what steps did this band of black and white troopers take to have the perpetrators of this murder of one white man by two blacks handed over to the authorities to be dealt with as the law prescribed? Absolutely none. They took the law into their own hands. They surrounded the tribe to which the murderers belonged whilst holding a corroboree one fine moonlight night, fired a volley of shot at a given signal into their midst. There was no inquiry into the matter, the troopers had had their revenge—that was enough."* So far removed was the Colony fifty years ago from the most primitive condition of law and order. A marvellous advancement towards complete civilisation however took place directly law-abiding free emigrants began to give to the infant society that tone which it is the pride of the Anglo-Saxon race to have carried to the remotest corners of the earth.

The history of the settlement presents few features of general interest from the time of its foundation in 1824 to the date when it was thrown open to colonisation in May, 1842. Land sales followed this last-named step, which was at once succeeded by a great inroad of free immigrants. The opening up of the settlement, however, was bitterly opposed by the squatters, who imagined it would be prejudicial to their own interests, as was also the abolition of transportation, the angry discussions with regard to which form the principal feature of the life of the settlement between the period of its being thrown open in 1842 to its separation from New South Wales in 1859, thus completely falsifying the objections of the squatters, that responsible Government was impossible in the Colony, since proper materials for working it could not be found. The very first ministry ever formed in Queensland abundantly proved that men of education, leisure, independence, and public spirit, could be found eager to devote themselves to legislative duties; and foremost among these may be mentioned the present distinguished permanent Secretary of the Colonial Office, Sir Robert G. W. Herbert, whose capacity as the Colonial Secretary in the first ministry has left an abiding mark in the early story of Queensland.

This separation was not effected without much opposition from the squatters, who strove to hinder it as strenuously as they did the opening up of the settlement to free immigrants. It was also bitterly opposed by a section of the Legislature of New South Wales; but it was ultimately carried, and Queensland, as the new Colony was called, entered upon a separate existence, receiving from the mother country the priceless boon of responsible government on the 10th of December, 1859. Sir

* Allen's 'History of Australia.'

George Bowen, who held office from that time to January, 1868, was its first Governor, affairs up to the first-named date having been managed by a succession of commandants who took their orders for the most part from Sydney. Queensland's first Parliament set to work with a will, and passed no less than seventeen Acts relating to land and agriculture, which were distinguished by their practical and useful character; and this wisdom at the outset has contributed to the progress of the Colony in a marked degree, and has indeed had the effect of rendering Queensland notable for the liberality of its land laws and tenure.

During Sir George Bowen's tenure of office there was a considerable stir respecting the importation of South Sea Islanders to work upon the cotton and sugar plantations which had sprung up in the north part of the Colony. It had been found that white labour was far too expensive to enable it to be adopted with profit, and hence the importation of Indian Coolies, Chinese, and natives of the various groups known as the South Sea Islands, was encouraged in all directions. The introduction of the latter soon grew into a regular trade, ships plying to and fro with their living cargoes. Abuses naturally sprung up under such conditions, and it was evident that, unless some check were applied, the movement would soon degenerate into a regular slave trade, as signs were not wanting that the South Sea Islanders did not always come spontaneously. The Queensland Legislature accordingly passed an Act prohibiting their importation unless documentary evidence were forthcoming of the consent of the parties concerned. By these means, and the prompt action of the Imperial Government, the scandals which had arisen in connection with the practice were soon lessened. The year 1866, fraught as it was with panics everywhere, was a very disastrous one to Queensland, every industry being in a great state of depression, and absolute ruin threatening on all sides; but the abundant resources of the Colony were equal to the occasion, and the cloud of adversity gradually dispersed. Sir George Bowen was transferred to New Zealand in 1868, and was succeeded by Colonel Blackall, whose short career was not marked by any special event, except the arrival of H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh in Queensland in 1869. Colonel Blackall died in office in January, 1871.

The next Governor was the Marquis of Normanby. His tenure was only of about three years' duration, viz., from 1871 to 1874. It is said of him that he quietly and unostentatiously administered the Government of the Colony in a constitutional manner, to the perfect satisfaction of the colonists, during a period of comparative prosperity and very marked progress. Quiet and unostentatious advance continued to be a marked feature of Queensland during the governorship of Sir William Cairns, the next Governor, who remained in office till 1877, resigning on account of ill-health, and being replaced by Sir Arthur E. Kennedy, an able administrator, who held office until May, 1883, when he was succeeded by the present governor, Sir Anthony Musgrave.

The most noteworthy point with regard to the climate of Queensland is the unequal distribution of rain, which seriously interferes with the agricultural, or at any rate the pastoral capabilities of the country as a whole. We cannot do better than quote in this place from the carefully considered report furnished on the subject by the Queensland Commission to the Melbourne International Exhibition.

"The productiveness of the soil varies with the amount and distribution of the annual rainfall. Except in the northern part of the Colony, where the well marked tropical wet and dry seasons are experienced, the rainfall is less in quantity, and more unevenly distributed throughout the year, in proportion to the distance from the coast. This general rule is subject, however, to severe variations, due to the height and position of the mountain ranges, and other local causes. In all the coast country the natural rainfall is sufficient for the growth of crops, and it is everywhere well, and in some parts abundantly, watered by running rivers and streams. The inland plateaux in some places approach the coast closely, in others are broad belts of comparatively low country. Portions of these plateaux are well adapted for agriculture. As an instance, the Darling Downs, in the southern part of the Colony, although at a considerable elevation above the sea, have been called the 'Garden of Queensland,' from the fertility of the soil and the suitability of the climate for agriculture. But the pre-eminence attached to this district is chiefly due to the fact that it was first settled, and is yet the only inland district in which agriculture has been carried on. There are other districts comprising many millions of acres with equally good soil enjoying a similar climate, where agriculture has not yet been attempted, simply because the mere handful of people in the Colony is not sufficiently numerous to attempt farming in more than a few isolated spots, amounting in the aggregate to a very insignificant area compared with the extent of available land. There are as yet only about 200,000 acres under cultivation in all Queensland. But further to the westward the inland plateaux assume a different character. The soil is throughout of remarkably high average fertility, but the rainfall is less in quantity, and the showers fall at longer intervals. There is little moisture in the air, night dews are rare, and in place of running streams and spring-fed brooks, the watercourses contain chains of ponds only connected after heavy rain. This—the distinctly pastoral region of Queensland—consists for the most part of plains and rolling downs, either quite open or very lightly timbered. The scrubs or thick growing forests differ widely from the coast jungles; the trees are generally small, there is little undergrowth, and there are no climbing vines or lianas. The open downs and plains, however, are covered with highly nutritious grasses and herbs: and even the scrubs abound in saline plants useful in maintaining the health of the stock. There is probably no better pastoral country in Australia. Even the dryness of the climate, except in so far as it limits the carrying capacity of the country, is no great disadvantage, as the native grasses are perfectly adapted to the conditions of growth imposed on them, and some of the most useful have the faculty of lying dormant during a drought, retaining sufficient vitality to spring into active growth when rain falls; even when dormant, these grasses are nutritious, although apparently white and dead. The main defect of the country—scarcity of water—is one that can be easily remedied by the construction of dams and reservoirs, and the water-courses are generally of a formation suitable for the work. It often happens that the most thickly-grassed and fertile country is found in places where surface-water is unusually scarce." The climate has indeed often been compared to that of Madeira, and as in that favoured island persons in the incipient stages of consumption find great benefit from a stay in Queensland. The temperature though high is

more constant than in many other regions having similar isothermal lines.

The Letters Patent constituting the Moreton Bay District of New South Wales a separate Colony, which were dated at Westminster on the 6th June, 1859, provided that a form of government should be established there similar to that existing in the mother colony. The Constitution was slightly altered by an Act of 1869, but it does not now differ materially from that of other Australian Colonies, and comprises a Governor, Legislative Council, and Assembly, the former consisting of 33 members, nominated for life by the Crown, and the latter of 57 members, elected by the colonists. Law is administered by the Supreme Court, attached to which there is a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges, and by the inferior Courts, which are much the same as in New South Wales. There is an efficient force of Police in the Colony, and order seems very generally to prevail.

The Colony comprises two dioceses, that of Brisbane, and that of North Queensland, and the number of clergy is about 50. The Roman Catholic Church is strong in Queensland, as will be seen by the table appended. The Nonconforming sects are not numerous, forming not much over a fifth of the total population. All denominations have to depend on the voluntary system, which has "hitherto worked to a certain extent satisfactorily." It is admitted, however, that under it "there is much spiritual destitution, which, owing to the wide area over which the sparse population is spread, is difficult to cope with." The number of persons of each denomination in the Colony at the census of 1881 is shown by the following table :—

Church of England	73,920	Baptists	5,583
Roman Catholics	54,376	Other Protestants	18,153
Presbyterians	22,609	Jews	457
Methodists	14,351	Pagans	16,871*
Independents	4,764	Residue	2,441

* Of these only 385 were females.

The education of the Colony is delegated to a special minister. Like the systems prevailing in the Colonies already treated of, it is compulsory, State-aided, and secular. In 1884 there were 425 State schools in operation, with an average daily attendance of 28,000. In that year there were 7 grammar schools, 96 private schools, and 6 orphan asylums.

Queensland has adopted, as we have before shown, a very liberal system of land tenure and acquisition. The Crown lands of the colony are made available in various ways according to the purposes for which they are required. The greatest facilities are afforded for the acquisition of land either for pastoral, agricultural, or mining pursuits, whether for temporary or permanent purposes.

They are controlled by the Crown Lands Act of 1884, which rescinds all other Land Acts. This has been framed to bring about increased agricultural settlement and closer pastoral occupation of the waste lands of the colony, and to contribute a more adequate return to the public revenue. Its principal aims are to encourage and substitute as much as possible leasing instead of selling, to prevent the aggregation of large estates, and to stop as far as practicable, the system of dummying. Its administration is

entrusted to a Land Board, consisting of two permanent members, acting with the Minister for Lands for the time being. The proclamations made from time to time opening land for selection in grazing or agricultural districts will specify the different lots, their respective areas, and the rent per acre.

Grazing farms may be selected in proclaimed districts of not more than 20,000 acres, at a rent to be fixed by the Land Board, not being less than ¾*d.* per acre per annum. So soon as an application is approved of, a non-transferable licence will be issued and, within three years, the selector must enclose his selection with a good and substantial fence. If at the end of that time he can prove to the satisfaction of the Commissioner that he has fenced in his holding and continuously resided on it, a transferable lease for 30 years will be issued to him. The rent for the first 10 years will be the amount fixed in the proclamation, and the rent for every subsequent period of five years will be determined by the Land Board.

Agricultural farms in proclaimed agricultural areas may be selected of not more than 1280 acres at a rent to be fixed by the Land Board, not being less than 3*d.* per acre per annum. A licence is issued to the selector who must within five years fence in the land, or make permanent improvements of a value equal to the cost of the fence, and must also live on the selection. If at the end of that time he can prove that he has performed the above conditions, he will be entitled to a transferable lease for 50 years. The rent for the first 10 years will be the amount fixed in the proclamation, and the rent for every subsequent period of five years will be determined by the Land Board. If a lessee can prove 10 years' continued residence, he will be entitled to purchase the holding at a price to be fixed by the Land Board, not being less than 20*s.* per acre.

In the case of an agricultural farm of not more than 160 acres, if the lessee proves five years' residence, and an expenditure of not less than 10*s.* an acre on permanent improvements, he can secure the fee simple by paying such sum as shall, with the rent already paid, amount to 2*s.* 6*d.* an acre.

Maps of land proclaimed open for selection as above, showing distance from railway or water carriage, price and rent per acre, quality and capabilities of land, so far as can be stated, may be inspected at the Land Office, Brisbane, or at any of the District Land Offices. It may be useful to mention here, as showing the vast amount of land available for our own surplus population, that of the 427 millions of acres which the Colony contains, only 11½ millions had been alienated up to the end of 1885, but a further 316 million acres have been already let out as sheep and cattle runs.

Agriculture in Queensland is more of a tropical character, from the nature of the climate, than is the case with regard to the other Colonies which have been under our consideration; but this fact does not interfere with its vast resources as a pastoral country. The large runs on the various downs, which extend two or three hundred miles inwards from the coast, seem to have unrivalled advantages for the vast herds of cattle, sheep, and horses which they sustain. True, the want of water is sometimes a grave matter, but irrigation comes in kindly to the succour of the husbandman, and it is now being successfully practised to the great comfort of man and beast. Kangaroos, too, consume much pasture, but these are hunted

down remorselessly. The grasses are suited to the climate, and are better able to endure a drought than some of the fodder plants of England, which, however, are being introduced as improving the pastures. The recently adopted freezing process for meat enables the colonists to sell as mutton and beef what some years ago would be only sold as tallow. Wool is, as yet, the most important article of produce of Queensland exported, and a marked improvement of late years in the quality of the stock tends to increase the out-turn. This staple is now clipped in the Colony to the weight of some 50 million pounds per annum.

At the commencement of 1885 the horses in the Colony numbered over 253 thousands, the cattle 4¼ millions, the sheep over 9¼ millions, and the pigs about 52 thousand. Truly a marvellous development in a little more than a quarter of a century!

The staple corn of the Colony is maize, an average crop of 25 bushels an acre being not uncommon; wheat growing is principally confined to the Darling Downs, although it has now been ascertained that there is an unlimited area suitable for it. The climate is also suitable for the growth of jute and other fibre-producing plants. Potatoes grow well: farmers sometimes gathering two crops a year. Green fodder crops of nearly all descriptions thrive luxuriantly. Cotton growing is well adapted for the soil and climate, but for some reason or other the production is not increasing. Sugar growing and manufacture has become a great industry. Arrowroot, rice, and coffee can be grown to advantage on the rich coast lands. Timber of fine quality for ornamental purposes, such as the Moreton Bay pine and the Queensland cedar, grow in large quantities, and the hard woods of the *eucalyptus* tribe, so valuable for railways and for bridge building, present great capabilities for export trading. Many of the indigenous plants present remarkable medicinal properties.

The trade of Queensland, like the rest of Australia, is mainly restricted to the export of raw products, the principal being wool, gold, galena, silver and lead, copper, arrowroot, pearl and tortoiseshell, meat (preserved, salted, and frozen), *bêche de mer*, sugar (raw and refined), hides and skins, tallow and timber. The total exports for 1883 exceeded £4,650,000 in value; and the thriving nature of the import trade in manufactured articles is shown by the fact that the total imports in 1884 exceeded in value £6,380,000. The Agent-General tells us that "Large and small capitalists may engage in the sugar industry, and find it a profitable investment. Hitherto it has been mainly in the hands of large capitalists, individuals or companies, who have acquired large areas of land ranging from 1,000 to 10,000 acres, and have erected large mills with expensive machinery and plant at great cost. The labour employed on these plantations has been mainly Polynesians from the South Sea Islands, but supply falling off, and the voice of the country having declared against its continuance, as well as the importation of Coolies from India, it is thought large estates will not be so profitably worked in future. British labourers have always been employed to some extent, as ploughmen, and at other work, even on the most northern plantations; and it is now well known that the health of Europeans does not suffer in the tropics of Queensland as it does in other tropical countries. White men on their own farms find no more difficulty

in cultivating sugar than any other crop. To assist the planters in their labour requirements, the Government will encourage and assist British farm labourers to go to Queensland. An Act has been passed to enable employers to indent, or engage farm labourers in Great Britain, for one or two years at stated wages and conditions, the agreements to be signed by, and binding on both parties. There is good reason to believe some of the owners of large plantations will find it more profitable to subdivide their estates, and will be willing to let or sell the land to small capitalists or working farmers. These will cultivate and sell the cane; the mill owner will crush and manufacture. This will afford an excellent opening for energetic and enterprising labourers to commence on their own account, after their terms of engagement have expired. Their one or two years' plantation work will prove invaluable experience. It is also expected much work will in future be done by contract."

With a population of about 310 thousand in so vast an area, the food resources are naturally superabundant.

The principal items of revenue are Customs, Excise, stamps, licences, land revenue, pastoral rents, mining leases and railways. The total revenue for the year 1884–85 was £2,720,656; and the expenditure, £2,819,854.

The railways in Queensland are:—The Southern and Western, which runs from Brisbane both south and west; the Central, from Rockhampton westwards; the Northern, from Townsville to Charters Towers and the west; the Maryborough, from Maryborough to Gympie; the Bundaberg, from Bundaberg to Mount Perry. In the year 1884 there were 1,207 miles of railway open, and about 746 more in course of construction; the length of telegraph wires being 11,300 miles.

The number of vessels entered inwards in the year 1884 was 1,042, and the number outwards 1,061, the tonnage being 572,124 and 579,988 respectively.

The mineral wealth of Queensland is known to be extensive, but as yet it is to a great extent undeveloped. Still, discoveries are almost daily taking place in widely different parts of the Colony. The following particulars are taken from official sources:—

Gold.—The gold discoveries of Queensland were several years later than those of New South Wales and Victoria, but have proved at least as rich in quality as any. There are alluvial gold workings in loose earth, or in the bed of streams; but the auriferous quartz is also broken up and crushed for the gold it contains. The alluvial may be worked out in time, but the auriferous quartz will last for centuries. Gold has been found in nearly every part of the Colony, from Warwick in the south to the Palmer and other rivers in the far north; in the south Gympie, with a population of 10,000 and an area of 90 square miles, taking the lead. In the central districts are the now famous Mount Morgan, and the older workings of Crocodile, Cawarral, Calliope, and others near Rockhampton, with Peak Downs over 200 miles to the north-west by railway. In the north, Charters Towers, with a population of 8,000, stands first in importance; the Hodgkinson, Palmer, Ravenswood, Etheridge districts and others following. In the early days of gold discovery, only alluvial ground was worked, but gold mining has long since become a settled industry, with much capital invested in plant and machinery, and

giving employment to a large number of miners. Though well established and paying handsome dividends, as many of the reefs on the older fields continue to do, it is well known that there are hundreds of others of tried and tested richness (but in the hands of moneyless men), that only await capital to develop them, and give the investors splendid returns for their outlay. Outside capital has certainly done little up to the present to develop Queensland's wonderful mineral wealth. Substantial rewards are still offered by the Government for the discovery of new payable gold fields. The value of gold exported in 1884 was estimated at about £924,000.

The total yield of gold from discovery to end of 1883 was 4,221,480 ounces, which, valued at £3 10*s.* per ounce, would give £14,775,180. Much of the gold obtained is worth £4 per ounce, and it is well known that large quantities have been taken out of the Colony by Chinese and others, which is not accounted for.

Silver.—Silver lead (galena) occurs at the Star River and at Dreghorn, near Ravenswood.

Mercury.—Cinnabar occurs in several lodes at Kilkivan.

Cobalt.—This metal is found with nickel at Port Curtis.

Bismuth.—This metal is found at the Cloncurry.

Zinc.—Zinc occurs in the Wide Bay District.

Antimony.—Small quantities of this occur in the Burnett district and larger quantities at the Hodgkinson.

Manganese.—This metal has occasionally been met with, and some is being worked in the Gladstone district.

Copper.—Queensland is eminently a land of copper. The ore has been found over a large area, with or without connection with gold rocks. The Peak Downs mine sent down £1,000,000 of copper in five years, and paid £215,000 dividends. But the high rate of wages, great cost for land carriage to a port, and fall of prices in Europe, severely tried the original shareholders, and eventually the works were stopped. So also were those at Mount Perry. Both have now, however, the advantage of railway communication with a port. Cloncurry has immense areas of copper lodes. A railway of 230 miles is however necessary to connect the Cloncurry mines with the Gulf of Carpentaria. There are many other copper localities, Koombit, Mount Wyatt, west of Mackay, Star River, Upper Dawson, Rawbelle, Normandy, Nebo, &c. The quantity of copper ore raised in 1883 was 1,800 tons, valued at £21,080. Cloncurry ruby copper is unusually rich, being crushed like auriferous quartz. The Colonial malachite is very fine. Low prices in Europe have made the export less of late years.

Tin.—Stream tin was discovered in the granite country towards the Southern Border in 1872. The stanniferous or tin area is put at 500 square miles there. The diggings are seldom above a few yards deep, and the ore is easily washed from the soil. The quantity of tin ore raised in 1883 was 55,619 tons. The occupation is healthful, being among mountains usually 2,000 to 3,000 feet high. Stanthorpe has now railway communication to Brisbane, and is regarded with favour as a sanatorium.

Rich deposits of tin are now found at Granite Creek, North Palmer diggings, selling for £60 a ton. Before the discovery of Australian tin, English prices were high; they have since been much reduced. The

export from Queensland during 1883 was valued at £298,845. Wonderfully rich tin lodes were worked in 1882 at Herberton. This field also will soon have the benefit of railway to the coast.

Iron.—The iron ores, however rich, cannot be worked for want of capital and labour. Chrome ore is found near Ipswich and Rockhampton. The hæmatite of Darling Downs is associated with the limestone flux and coal fuel. The red oxide of Carpentarian Desert sandstone assayed 60–70 per cent. The micaceous ore of Cloncurry is valuable. Good iron bands of Central Queensland are with limestone and coal.

Coal.—This valuable mineral is placed by Mr. Daintree, the geologist, over an area equal to half of England, and very probably may run much further. The secondary coal is to the south, and the primary is in Central Queensland; but beds have been found as far north as Cooktown. In most cases the cost of land carriage, apart from the great demands on the very limited labour supply of the Colony, prevents the highly bituminous supply reaching the market. The railway brings coal from Burrum to Maryborough. The far western downs have some seams. The Tivoli, Aberdare, and other pits of West Moreton pay well. Their coal is said to have been sold in California at a higher price than that from New South Wales. The yield of coal in 1884 was 120,000 tons.

Darling Downs abound in carboniferous deposits. Coal is traced from the Condamine on to the Mackenzie. Clifton mine is 140 miles from Brisbane. Rosewood, near Rockhampton, and the banks of the Dawson and Mackenzie, have rich coal. The Ipswich beds are estimated to have 15 million tons on 10 square miles; while those of Darling Downs are practically inexhaustible. With capital, scientific appliances, and cheap carriage, the coal of Queensland will become a great export.

Precious Stones.—Diamonds, sapphires, garnets, topazes, aquamarine, &c., are picked up in tin streams. The sardonyx and fine agates are common in the north-west country, especially at the Cloncurry. Opal in large quantities is gathered in trachytic conglomerate and sandstone of the western Barcoo lands.

Building Stones.—These are granites of all varieties, excellent marbles, freestone, limestone, slate, porphyry, and basalt.

The land defence is not extensive, consisting mainly of a volunteer force of a little over 1,000 men. This little body consists of four batteries of artillery, a company of engineers, two infantry regiments, two coast corps and a battalion of cadets. The marine defences were carried out as in the rest of Australia, under the experienced supervision of Sir W. Jervoise. Those already complete are a battery at Lytton commanding the entrance to the Brisbane River, and some torpedo works.

The Colony also possesses two gunboats and a torpedo boat.

The population of Queensland at the census of 1881 was 234,110, of these 136,000 were males and 98,000 females. This large discrepancy is in some way accounted for by the Chinese, who numbered 11,229, only *twenty-three* of these being females. This race is not popular in the Colony, and a heavy poll tax is imposed with a view of keeping the celestials out of it.

The aborigines are stronger in point of numbers in Queensland than in any other part of the continent. It is estimated that there are as many as 70,000 in the Colony; they are most numerous in the northern parts.

The increase of population in 1881 over the previous ten years was 88,000, being the largest proportionate increase in Australia. The estimated population on the 31st December, 1884, was 309,913, being quite an extraordinary increase, showing in the short space of little more than three years and a half almost as great an increase as in the previous decade. This fact alone speaks volumes for the vitality of the Colony. The population in March 1886 is believed to exceed 325,000, or 13 times what it was a quarter of a century ago.

Immigration from the United Kingdom is encouraged by the Queensland Government, and free and assisted passages are granted to suitable applicants, about £3,000,000 having been expended on this object, upwards of £1,000,000 indeed in the last four years.

GEOGRAPHY.

POSITION AND BOUNDARIES.—The Colony of Queensland embraces all that part of the eastern side of the Australian Continent which lies to the northward of New South Wales, having a seaboard which extends from the parallel of 28° 10′ northward to Cape York, and from that point southward and westward along fully one half the shore line of the Gulf of Carpentaria. Queensland is bounded on the south by New South Wales and South Australia, from the first of which it is divided by an imaginary line drawn from Point Danger westward along the Macpherson and Dividing Ranges and the Dumaresque river to the Macintyre river, thence by the 29th parallel of south latitude to the 141st meridian of east longitude. A line drawn along the 26th parallel from the 141st to the 138th meridian forms the southern dividing line between Queensland and South Australia. Along the whole western border is South Australia, which is divided from Queensland by an imaginary line drawn, first, along the 141st meridian from the 29th to the 26th parallel, and, afterwards, from the 26th parallel, along the 138th meridian to the shore of the Gulf of Carpentaria. The Gulf of Carpentaria and Torres Strait form the northern boundary, and the Pacific Ocean the eastern boundary. A chain of coral reefs, known as a whole under the name of the Great Barrier Reef, extends from Torres Strait southward to the latitude of 24° 30′. Between this reef and the shore, a distance varying from 10 miles to 100 miles, is a channel affording a safe passage for ships. There are a few openings in the reef by which vessels may pass from one side of it to the other, but the navigation is somewhat dangerous. The sea to the eastward of the Barrier Reef contains many coral rocks and islets, whence it is generally known as the Coral Sea. The entire eastern coast line is most picturesque, a succession of islands, bold headlands and harbours appearing in every direction, and in the background the lofty ranges of the mainland are seldom out of sight. The northern shores in the gulf of Carpentaria are flat and uninteresting, and the interior swampy.

The area of Queensland is not less than 670,000 square miles (about the size of Great Britain, France, Germany and Italy combined), and it has a coast line of some 2,500 miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The surface of Queensland may be divided into three portions: 1. A coast district, consisting of a narrow strip of country lying along the coast and traversed by numerous rivers; 2. A highland region, comprising a range of mountains with numerous offshoots, which, under the general name of the Coast Range, extends from York Peninsula to within a short distance of Brisbane; 3. Level, or nearly level, tracts of country, which extend from the mountain region to the western boundary of the Colony. The average height of the mountain ranges of Queensland is from 2,000 to 3,000 feet, though there are detached points of a much greater elevation. The descent of the mountain land is, on the Pacific Slope, somewhat rapid, but towards the interior the highlands extend for a considerable distance as table-lands, known locally as downs. In the southern portion of the Colony the breadth of the elevated region, from east to west, is upwards of 200 miles. The plains of the interior, which were long thought to be sterile, have been found to be for the most part well grassed and moderately watered regions, affording good grazing grounds for cattle. The river system of Queensland has three distinct slopes: 1st. A northward slope, the rivers of which flow into the Gulf of Carpentaria; 2nd. A south-westerly slope, a portion of which is directed towards the inland basin of Lake Eyre, and another portion towards the basin of the Murray; 3rd. A coast region, the rivers of which have their outlet in the Pacific.

CAPES AND ISLANDS.—The principal headlands on the Queensland coast are: Point Danger, Cape Moreton on Moreton Island, Sandy Cape, Double Island Point, Cape Capricorn, Cape Manifold, Cape Townsend, Cape Palmerston, Cape Hillsborough, Cape Upstart, Cape Bowling Green, Cape Cleveland, Cape Grafton, Cape Tribulation, Cape Bedford, Cape Flattery, Cape Melville, Cape Direction, Cape Grenville, Cape York, Duyfhen Point and Pera Head. The coast line of the Colony is studded with numerous islands, for the most part of very small dimensions. The most important are:—Stradbroke (about 33 miles long by 6 miles broad), Moreton, Bribie Island, Great Sandy or Fraser Island, Curtis Island, the Cumberland Isles, and Hinchinbrook Island, on the eastern coast; Prince of Wales Island, Banks' Island and Mulgrave Island, off Cape York; and Wellesley Islands, in the Gulf of Carpentaria.

BAYS, HARBOURS, AND STRAITS.—The eastern coast of the Colony is indented with numerous bays, the principal of which are: Moreton Bay, Hervey Bay, Port Curtis, Keppel Bay, Port Bowen, Shoalwater Bay, Broad Sound, Repulse Bay, Edgecumbe Bay, Upstart Bay, Bowling Green Bay, Cleveland Bay, Halifax Bay, Rockingham Bay, Mourilyan Harbour, Trinity Bay, Bathurst Bay, Princess Charlotte Bay, Lloyds' Bay, Weymouth Bay, Temple Bay, Shelburne Bay, and Newcastle Bay. Many of these, such as Moreton Bay, Hervey Bay, Keppel Bay, Port Curtis, Port Bowen and Rockingham Bay, form excellent harbours. The principal harbour in the Gulf of Carpentaria, the great inlet on the north-western coast of the Colony, is at the head of the Gulf, between the Wellesley Islands and the mainland. This is known as Investigator Roads. The principal straits are Whitsunday Passage, between the Cumberland Islands, on the east coast, and the mainland; Torres Strait, which separates Qneensland from New Guinea; and Endeavour Strait, between Prince of Wales Island and Cape York Peninsula.

MOUNTAINS.—Along the whole eastern coast, at an average distance from it of about 50 miles, extends a range of mountains of moderate elevation, known generally as the Coast Range, and locally under various designations, as the Cook, Kirchner, Razorback, Wyatt, Dawes, Glasshouse, and other ranges. The culminating point is Mount Dalrymple, 4,250 feet high. The Bellenden Ker Hills, towards the south of Cape York Peninsula, attain a greater height, some of the peaks having an altitude of more than 5,000 feet. The Main Range, which is known in different parts of the Colony under various subsidiary names, runs inland of the Coast Range. The Dividing Range, of which a portion is known as Macpherson's Range, extends from Point Danger on the coast to the head waters of the Dumaresq river. It forms a part of the boundary between Queensland and New South Wales. Other lines of hills of less elevation than those named occur in various parts of the Colony.

RIVERS.—Of the coast streams, the principal are the Brisbane, flowing into Moreton Bay; the Mary and the Burnett, flowing into Hervey's Bay; the Fitzroy (formed by the junction of the Mackenzie and Dawson rivers), the Burdekin, and the Kennedy. The Mitchell, Staaten, Gilbert, Norman, Flinders, Leichhardt, Albert, Gregory, and Nicholson, have their outlet in the Gulf of Carpentaria. The Herbert, the Diamenta, the Victoria or Barcoo, the Condamine or Balonne, the Paroo, and the Warrego, belong to the region of inland drainage. There are numerous streams of small magnitude in the western part of the Colony, but they become lost in the vast plains of the interior of the Continent.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—Queensland is divided into twelve large districts, viz., Moreton (east and west), Darling Downs, Burnett, Port Curtis, Maranoa, Leichhardt, Kennedy, Mitchell, Warrego, Gregory, Burke, and Cook. The principal centres of population are: Brisbane, an episcopal city, and the capital of the Colony, on the river Brisbane, a few miles above its entrance into Moreton Bay, with some 40,000 inhabitants; Ipswich, a thriving town of about 8,000 inhabitants, 23½ miles to the westward of Brisbane; Maryborough, about 180 miles to the northward of Brisbane, on the river Mary, 25 miles from its mouth; Rockhampton, still further north, on the banks of the river Fitzroy; Mackay, on the Pioneer river; and Townsville, on the shores of Cleveland Bay, about 870 miles N.W. of Brisbane, with a population of 9,000. Other places of less importance are:—Gladstone, Bowen, Cardwell, Cairns, Port Douglas, Cooktown, and Somerset, on the eastern coast, with Normanton, Chandos, and Burketown, at the head of the Gulf of Carpentaria.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

GOVERNOR,
SIR FREDERICK NAPIER BROOME, K.C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. MALCOLM FRASER, C.M.G.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. ALFRED PEACH HENSMAN.

SURVEYOR-GENERAL AND COMMISSIONER OF CROWN LANDS,
HON. JOHN FOREST, C.M.G.

TREASURER AND COLLECTOR OF REVENUE,
HON. A. O'G. LEFROY, C.M.G.

DIRECTOR OF WORKS AND ENGINEER-IN-CHIEF,
HON. J. A. WRIGHT, C.B.

ASSISTANT COLONIAL SECRETARY,
G. B. PHILLIPS.

AUDITOR GENERAL,
E. L. COURTHOPE.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
A. HELMICH.

COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS,
L. W. CLIFTON.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. ALEX. CAMPBELL ONSLOW.

PUISNE JUDGE,
HON. EDWARD ALBERT STONE.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

THIS great territory, the largest of the Australian Colonies, was formerly known as the Swan River Settlement, and covers an area not far short of a million square miles. The original Swan River Settlement was much less in extent, comprising the south-west corner of the continent only.

Like other parts of Australia, the present Colony was touched at by the early Portuguese and Dutch navigators, but the scanty records they have left need not here be referred to. The first settlement of the Colony was made in 1826, with a party of convicts and a detachment of the 39th Regiment under the command of Major Lockyer. Three years later, i.e. on 1st June, 1829, the Colony was proclaimed by Captain Stirling, who was sent out from England as the first Governor. A few artisans arrived with him, and he brought also some cattle and other live stock. Captain Stirling's advent was followed in a couple of months by the first emigrant ship, which was quickly succeeded by others, no fewer than thirty-nine vessels arriving during the years 1829–30, emigrants being attracted by the liberal grants of land offered by the Home Government.

During the first decade of the settlement no great advance was made in the prosperity of the Colony. Perth, the present capital, was founded in 1829; in the following year some quarrels arose with the natives, and an overland journey from Perth to King George's Sound was accomplished in 1831, but no other event of importance seems to have marked the rule of Sir James Stirling, who was succeeded in 1839 by Mr. Hutt, during whose tenure of office a steady increase in prosperity took place. Mr. Hutt was succeeded in 1845 by Colonel Clark, who only remained for a year and gave place to another military governor, Colonel Irwin, who remained till 1848, and was replaced by Colonel Fitzgerald. It was during the last named Governor's tenure of office that an event occurred which was fraught with much importance to the future history of the Colony. Owing to the want of capital, the whole community was in a very unprosperous state; what labour was attainable at all was at great expense, and, besides this, the lack of market rendered it impossible for the settlers to get rid of the raw material which their land produced. A petition was accordingly addressed by the settlers to the Imperial Government to make the Colony a penal settlement, a request which was promptly acceded to, and shipload after shipload of convicts came pouring in, until the year 1868, when the system was abolished, nearly ten thousand prisoners having been absorbed altogether.

Up to the year 1850 there is little to call for remark in the history of West Australia, as it presents, as has been said, the account of a Colony struggling for bare existence without sufficient capital to render available its

vast natural resources—it was in fact in a most impoverished condition and emigration had ceased altogether.

The late Sir Arthur Kennedy replaced Captain Fitzgerald in June 1855, and held office till February 1862, when he was replaced by Mr. Hampton, whose experience as "Comptroller General" of convicts in Tasmania rendered him peculiarly well qualified for the post. Sir F. A. Weld was the next Governor, succeeding Mr. Hampton in 1869, and a return to prosperity dates from his accession to office. Something too was done in 1870 towards popular government by the establishment of electoral districts, and the appointment of a Legislative Council; and the construction of a line of telegraphs did a great deal towards placing the leading communities of Western Australia in communication with each other and with the sister colonies.

An injudicious land system, and the want of capital, seem to have been the main causes of the unflourishing state of West Australia as compared with the rest of this great continent. It is by no means wanting in the conditions necessary to success, either for pastoral purposes or general farming. A paper recently read before H.R.H. the Prince of Wales at the Royal Colonial Institute, by Sir Frederick Napier Broome, K.C.M.G., the present governor, thus refers to the Colony:—

"Founded in 1829, and therefore fifty-six years old, Western Australia has until lately made but slow progress. She has been the Cinderella of the Australian family, while her more fortunate sisters have got on in the world, have been gay and prosperous, and have received much company in the shape of immigrants, she has led a solitary and unnoticed existence. At this day, only 32,000 settlers are thinly scattered over the occupied portion of her vast expanse; and such a mere handful of Colonists, even were they concentrated, would not furnish material for a community of any importance. The most pressing want of the Colony, the one great need, is more people, of the right sort of course, not only more hands to labour, but more capitalists to employ them. The development of valuable industries lying ready to hand is hampered at every turn by this want of population. The Colony is like a ship undermanned, which, however fair the wind may blow, cannot spread its sails to catch a favouring breeze. Of this great need of numbers the local Government and legislature are well aware, and our best efforts are being devoted to action—whether in the shape of direct immigration, the promotion of public works, or other steps—such as will bring good settlers to our shores. I can confidently say that we have both room and attractions for new comers. The difficulty has hitherto been that our immigrants would not stay with us, but went on to the wealthier and more bustling Eastern Colonies. Now, however, this has changed, and indeed, the tide is setting the other way. Eager to take advantage of what seems at last a favourable turn in her affairs, Western Australia is bestirring herself, and making strenuous efforts to break free from the adverse conditions and circumstances, which have shackled her for half a century. Taking everything into account, a great deal has already been accomplished. Railways and telegraphs have been built, and, as will presently appear, to no inconsiderable extent. The annual income of the Government is very large, when the smallness of the tax-paying body is borne in mind. Last year the locally-raised revenue amounted to close upon £9 per head of every man, woman, and child of the population, a scale much beyond that

of most of the other Australasian Colonies. The fact that this rate of revenue is easily collected, without undue pressure on any class, shows, I think, that the Colony, so far as it has yet advanced, is in a sound condition.

"The people of Western Australia, if not wealthy, are in their smaller way a very comfortably well-off community. Every West Australian may have his fowl in the pot, and something more, and the Colony can boast many a substantial homestead, and even some rich men. Though it cannot as yet pretend to compare with the splendidly flourishing States of Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, its time is coming, and at length it moves. During the last ten years the public revenue has doubled, real progress has been made, and it is beginning to be seen that, though we may not have the gold mines which have built Melbourne, or the wide and continuous expanse of wheat-growing lands which lie behind Adelaide, we possess solid and various resources capable of great development. Keen men of business, who are on the look-out to be first in at a good thing, are turning their attention to Western Australia. The capitalists of Victoria and the other Eastern Colonies take a growing interest in us. Speculators have an idea there is money to be made on our side of the Continent, and I believe they are right. One result of this new state of things is, that I have just signed a contract for 220 miles of railway, on the land-grant system, involving an expenditure of near a million of money; while two 'Syndicates' are negotiating other similar enterprises of magnitude in different parts of the Colony."

This important paper concludes thus—"With many fertile tracts, with its timber and its minerals, and with a population of only 32,000—far less than peoples the barren Red Sea coasts—scattered over a million square miles, it stands to reason that Western Australia has room and to spare for many times its present complement of settlers. It has as yet been scarcely tried—as it will, I hope, be tried by the contractors for the new land-grant railways—on any sound scheme and considerable scale, as a field for the emigration of the labouring classes. The local Government is now specially moving and making efforts to maintain a steady influx of honest workers of this description, and there is a good opening for them both in town and country. It is true there are many barren tracts in Western Australia. If there were not, it could maintain 50,000,000 people, instead of the 2,000,000 or so which there can be little doubt that it will one day feed. In this vast territory, the occurrence of even good patches of agricultural soil at intervals means, in the aggregate, farm land sufficient for many thousands of families. The temperate and healthy zones are becoming well-civilized and settled nearly all round our habitable globe, except in localities which present more barriers to colonization than any which exist in Western Australia. Capital and labour have now to wrestle somewhat for themselves in the more favoured regions of the world, which have long been their accustomed resort. This Colony I hold to be one of the few remaining parts of the British Empire in which there is still ample, almost boundless, scope for enterprise and settlement. It has had, and still has, its drawbacks; but most of them are being fast surmounted, as its ample territory and varied resources, till now hardly known, become more accessible and developed, both by private enterprise and by the energetic prosecution of public works by the Government, and

as the wealthier and more settled Australian states fill up towards the level of old communities."

The climate on all sides is admitted to be the finest and most salubrious in the world, and the mortality of Western Australia, since its occupation, is said to have averaged not more than 1 per cent. In 1884, out of a population of 32,958, there were but 707 deaths. From the northern to the southern extremity the climate varies considerably; the southern temperature is similar to that of England, but higher; but the heat is of a kind borne without much inconvenience. The northern is hot but not unpleasant, the atmosphere being free from that moistness characteristic of tropical climates generally, and being tempered with cool breezes. The climate of the central portion of the Colony is like that of Southern Italy, and parts of Spain. In the Kimberley district the climate during the winter months has proved to be dry and bracing; the barometer registering about 30·10, with heavy dews at night and occasional fogs.

The seasons are divided into wet and dry, the former commencing in April and lasting till September. According to the meteorological observations taken at Perth in 1884, the total rainfall for the year was 31·96 inches. The average of the year for 16 stations in various parts was 28·80 inches. The dry season is occasionally but rarely visited by a shower or thunderstorms. During three months of this period hot land winds prevail, but almost always at night, and are counteracted invariably by the prevailing summer winds from the south-west during the day.

The severe droughts and heavy floods experienced in the other Australian Colonies are unknown in Western Australia, though the north-west coast is occasionally visited by storms of almost hurricane force during the summer months. The mean of the barometer is about 30 inches, and of the thermometer about 65 degrees. In 1884 the daily average reading of the barometer was 30 degrees. The highest reading of the thermometer was 114° on the 18th February and 25th December, and the lowest 34°, the average being 64°. Exposure to all weathers is stated by universal experience to produce no ill effects on the constitution. Epidemic diseases are almost unknown, dysentery and diarrhœa are also unfrequent, contrary to the experience of other parts of Australia; and consumptive persons have often had reason to bless the climate for a continuance of life. Snow is never seen, ice only in the early morning and in the depth of winter. A competent authority, writing in the 'Calcutta Englishman' during the discussion as to the establishment of an Indian military sanatorium in Western Australia, describes the climate "as such as no other in the world can excel, and few equal for comfort and life-giving attributes." The constitution of Western Australia differs from that of the other Australian colonies in several important points. Of the various works furnished to us on the subject of this Colony we select the paper by Sir Frederick Broome, before referred to, as furnishing in the most readable form a description of this constitution. Let us take Sir Frederick's own words:

"Now that we are at the seat of Government, it is fitting to say something about the political system of the Colony. The local Parliament is called the Legislative Council, and there is only this one chamber. The Treasury Bench is occupied by four immovable officials, and gentlemen of the Colony are also nominated by the Crown to four other seats. But the

main body of the Legislature consists of sixteen members, elected by the thirteen electoral districts. There is a speaker, and the business is conducted on the House of Commons' model. Our little Parliament rightly prides itself on being one of the best behaved Legislatures in the world. 'Scenes' and obstruction are unknown, and business goes very pleasantly, though each electoral member is a free lance, and owns no tie except to his constituency. It will be perceived that the Government commands no majority in the sense that it is commanded in the House of Commons by the Ministry in power.

"The proposals of the Government of Western Australia have to depend on their own merits, and not on a party whip. The Treasury bench is, it is true, irremovable, but business has to be carried on in the face of a double majority of elected members, not pledged or bound in any way to support the Government. This 'hybrid constitution,' as it is sometimes styled, is a sort of half-way house between Crown Government and free institutions, and can only be worked by dint of tact and carefulness, temper, and good feeling, on both sides.

"The Western Australian Constitution has been called neither 'fish, flesh, fowl, nor good red-herring.' For my part, I think it a happy discovery for colonies which are clearly on the way to responsible Government, but have 'one more river to cross' before they can enter upon the promised land. I am quite ready to allow that it is not a constitution in which any Anglo-Saxon community can 'rest and be thankful' for good and all, but it is a great advance upon the Crown Colony system, for the elected side of the chamber supplies an expression and touch of authorised and responsible public opinion, the want of which, even making all allowance for the invaluable aid of the press, must be a hindrance to any Government. In the words of the play, I may say of the Governor of Western Australia that he has 'not too much power, but just power enough.' The Legislative Council acts as a constitutional basis for, and check upon, his executive authority, but the direction of affairs remains in his hands, through his irremovable officers. Under responsible Government, as you know, it is different. In the greater colonies of Victoria, New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, and New Zealand, 'le roi règne, mais ne gouverne pas;' and though, no doubt, the governors of these colonies fill very elevated and dignified posts, in which their talents and energies have a scope and influence of a special nature, I think that the work of the Governor of Western Australia is more responsible and interesting in some respects. Free institutions in Western Australia are only hindered by its immense territory and scanty population. None can dispute the abstract superiority of these institutions, or deny that they are the natural political goal of every community of our race not swamped by an Asiatic or other population clearly not in a position to govern itself. That a very few years will naturally bring about responsible government in Western Australia we may sincerely hope and believe, and we may feel more that it is fully recognised to be the duty of the Government to push ahead public works, immigration, and industries, and otherwise to leave no stone unturned to fit the Colony to receive, at the earliest possible day, institutions such as are enjoyed by the wealthier and more populated states of Australia. To make the change just now would probably be prejudicial, and I believe this is the opinion of the majority of the Legislature, and of

most Colonists of 'light and leading.' Any reference by me to political matters would be very incomplete and ungracious, if I did not in the warmest manner express my sense of the invaluable assistance, and the hearty and harmonious co-operation, extended to me by the members of the Legislative Council, in and out of Session, from the day I assumed the government, nearly two years ago. The Legislature and the Governor can have but one object at heart, namely, the good of the Colony. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, a very little common sense and consultation is quite sufficient to show that there is only one practical and desirable course of action in any given matter. In the hundredth case, a courteous difference of opinion is nothing more than a dash of salt into the bowl of politics, and saves it from insipidity, without introducing bitterness."

To treat now of religion and education, it may be mentioned that the whole Colony constitutes a Bishop's See, that of Perth and the Church is under the government of a Convocation (or, as it is there called, a Synod), a body established in 1872, which consists of the bishop as president, all licensed clergymen, and lay communicants elected by the various parishes, no act being valid unless it obtains the consent of all the three orders. The Ordinary has the power of vetoing any bill. The Synod must meet once in every three years. Presentations to livings are made by nominations from the Synod and are subject to confirmation by the Bishop. The number of clergy is twenty-two, four of whom are missionaries of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, one of whom is charged with a special mission to the Aborigines at Gascoyne.

There is also a Roman Catholic bishopric contained in the Colony. The numerous nonconforming sects constitute about a fourth of the population, and the various denominations are proportionately represented. The strength of the various bodies will be seen by an inspection of the following returns at the census of 1881 :

Church of England	16,263	Baptists	Nil
Roman Catholics	8,413	Other Protestants	Nil
Presbyterians	1,004	Jews	Nil
Methodists	2,084	Pagans	Nil
Independents	1,262	Residue	682

The education of the Colony is based upon the system in force in England. It is compulsory and secular. The elementary schools are under the control and supervision of a central board and local district boards. The central board consists of four members, besides the Colonial Secretary, all of whom must be laymen, and no two of them may be of the same religious denomination, the result being that, although the Church of England comprises more than half the population, it can only be represented by two members out of five. The Local District Boards are chosen every five years by the general body of electors.

The raw produce of the Colony consists of wool, hides, leather, oil, lead and copper ores, the latter being exceedingly rich ; tallow, flour, gum, pearls and pearl shells. There is also a considerable export of horses and sheep. The timber trade, owing to the abundance of forest land, is capable of indefinite extension, and the pearl fishery in the north-west becomes year by year of more importance. Of the former, the jarrah, sometimes called Australian mahogany, although it is really a tree of the *eucalyptus* tribe, covers immense tracts of land in the south-west portion of the Colony.

Its timber is extraordinarily durable, and, as it resists the white ant and the *teredo navalis*, it is admirably adapted for railway sleepers and for piles for bridges and harbour works. The "Karri," another of the *eucalypti*, is also a valuable timber tree, sometimes attaining the height of 300 feet. A demand for sandalwood has lately sprung up on Chinese account. The horses go principally to India, Singapore, and Batavia; their value in 1883 was upwards of £11,000. The home industries are not important: a few tanneries, some smelting works, and steam joineries, being the most noteworthy. The tariffs being much the same as in New South Wales, do not call for special comment.

There has been much controversy concerning the land of West Australia, the cultivation of which, as has been shown, is much retarded by want of sufficient labour; bands of fertile soil where sandalwood and other trees grow abundantly, and which appear to be in all respects suitable for the culture of the vine, olive and fig, occur in the middle districts, and it is probably the want of capital alone which has so far retarded experiments in silk-growing and formation of vineyards. Good wheat-growing soils also exist over large areas. We select the following further description of the lands from the 'Australian Handbook':—

"The soil consists of vast tracks of sand and scrub, which is of little value; of much land suitable for sheep grazing purposes, and for farming operations; and of extensive areas that will yet become available for the growth of the sugar cane and other tropical productions. The eastern side of the Roe and Darling Ranges is specially suitable for the grazier and farmer. In the north, too, there are extensive grassy downs, capable of despasturing vast numbers of sheep and cattle. On the Lower Greenough River one flat alone contains 10,000 acres of very fine land, giving, with very slight cultivation, 30 bushels of wheat to the acre. The presence of poisonous plants, however, is one of the greatest drawbacks in some parts of the country to stock raising. The greater extent of the seaboard is separated from the interior by low ranges of hills, running parallel to it, and covered with forests principally of 'jarrah.' The fertile land exists in patches, and some of it is of a very rich character. On the whole, the soil may be said to possess immense productive powers under unfavourable circumstances. It is proposed to introduce the Buffalo grass, in order to utilize gradually the sandy tracts. Couch (or Doob) grass has been largely introduced for paddocks. It thrives abundantly, grows upon the poorest of soils, and in the hottest and driest weather affords substantial pasturage. In many parts of the bush it is now growing without the intervention of artificial culture."

There is no evidence to show whether the colonists have ever been tempted to try spurrey, which has been grown with much success both in England and on the Continent on soils such as those just described, and which affords excellent fodder for sheep on land which would otherwise be useless. In a lecture delivered on the 17th March, 1884, at the South Kensington Museum, and at which H.R.H. The Prince of Wales presided, Mr. Henry Webb, the presiding genius of the far-farmed Merton flocks, gives us the benefit of his experience with this plant on the estate of Lord Walsingham:—

In many parts of the country there are, as we know, thousands of acres of poor, light, sandy soil, lying comparatively uncultivated or unremunerative. For these lands,

if their sterility were absolute, the silos would be of no avail. But their sterility is not absolute. I believe it possible to bring them under cultivation, to the undoubted advantage of the owners, the occupiers, and the general community.

Though they will grow neither grass nor clover, I think Lord Walsingham has succeeded in selecting a plant suited to such soils, which makes an excellent food for the use of cowkeeper and flockmaster. After consideration and inquiry, his Lordship came to the conclusion that spurrey (*Spergula arvensis*) might be profitably cultivated on light sandy soil, and the practical trials which I made under his directions have fully sustained that position. Before speaking of these trials, I ought perhaps, briefly to refer to the plant itself. Spurrey is an annual plant of the pink and carnation family (*Caryophyllaceæ*), and is largely cultivated in different parts of the Continent of Europe. It yields a rapid crop of succulent herbage. When ripe the capsules burst and shed a number of black seeds, which are said to be equal in nutritive value to rape cake. These seeds are bruised and given to horses and milch cows, and have the effect of increasing the quantity and improving the quality of the milk. *Abounding on light inferior soils the plant is greedily eaten by sheep and cattle, and is pronounced very wholesome and nutritious.*

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The trial as desired was a severe one. The land selected was a piece of twenty acres of blowing sand, and so poor in quality that it had seldom produced either corn or roots, and for the last two or three years had been abandoned to nature. Only here and there a spire of quick grass (*Triticum repens*) was to be seen. About the middle of April the plough was lightly run over the land, and the seed sown at the rate of 14 lbs. to the acre. The plant grew rapidly. In July it was from 12 to 14 inches high. It was then fit to feed off with sheep, and I told the shepherd to fold on it at night. What a look of horror he gave! "The sheep," he said, "will never eat such stuff." And for the first three or four nights they certainly did not seem to care very much for it. They ate but little. Then, one morning, the old shepherd came to me with a very long face and said, "Jest as I expected—that stuff's a killin' the sheep." One had died during the night. But a *post-mortem* examination made in my presence at once proved that the unfortunate animal, instead of being brought to an untimely end through eating spurrey, died from inflammation of the lungs, the attack not one of recent standing. With blank astonishment, the shepherd received the instruction that I now gave him. "You must continue to fold off the spurrey; we will see how many more it will kill." In some five or six days the sheep had taken to the food, eating it up clean every night. They seemed particularly partial to the seed-capsules. During the four or five weeks they were folded on the piece, they got no other food, except what little they picked up on a somewhat bare sheepwalk in the course of the day. There was no other case of sickness or mortality among them. They gained in condition, and for several days after the food was finished they manifested a desire to go back to the piece. Even the shepherd was satisfied. He was sorry when the spurrey was done, and now looks upon it as an excellent food for sheep.

It is manifest then that if spurrey and similar plants could be acclimatised the result would be of considerable advantage to the barren portion of West Australia, much of which appears to be light sandy soil, answering to the description of the land on which this notable experiment was so successfully tried.

At present the principal crops of the colony are wheat, barley, hay, and potatoes. The vine, too, is being successfully cultivated, but to a very limited extent, and excellent wine is said to be made from the produce.

The following will show the number of acres under cultivation, in the year 1884:

Wheat, 29,416 acres; barley, 5,616 acres; oats, 1,451 acres; hay, 24,053; potatoes, 500.

The number of live stock was:—Horses, 37,111; horned cattle, 71,102; sheep, 1,547,061; goats, 6,035; pigs, 20,039; camels, 27.

The revenue for the year 1884 from all sources including customs was £290,319, and the expenditure for the same period £291,307.

The railway system of the Colony is still in its infancy, only 124 miles being yet open, but several contracts have lately been made for the extension of this important factor in the development of the Colony.

The shipping of the Colony is not extensive: only 231 vessels have entered inwards in 1884, and 211 outwards. The shipbuilding trade is beginning to assert itself, a fact not at all surprising considering the extensive forests of timber existing there. Would it be too much here to express a hope that some enterprising firm of shipbuilders in the mother country will one day inaugurate a shipbuilding yard on the Swan River, at Fremantle, utilizing the splendid productions of the forest, which for such purposes are probably of exceptional value, and must necessarily be of extraordinary cheapness? And with reference to this suggestion it may be observed that iron in almost inexhaustible quantities is known to exist in the Colony.

The mineral resources of West Australia are not yet fully developed, but they are nevertheless known to be important. A reward of £5,000 has been offered for the discovery of a payable gold field. Competent authorities pronounce that vast tracts of country are auriferous, and it is hoped therefore that the reward will not remain much longer in the Treasury coffers.

Copper mines are at work at Northampton in the north district, but the depressed condition of this metal generally, although the ore contains an exceptional quantity of copper, militates against the growth of the industry.

Lead and zinc ores are found in many districts, as also is magnetic iron. A bonus of £3,000 has been offered for the erection of smelting works for the production of at least 1,000 tons of lead a year.

The military defence of the Colony is entrusted to a small volunteer force consisting of a battery of artillery and six companies of infantry —about 500 of all ranks. Service in this force is encouraged by grants of land, or a money payment at the option of the grantee. The only naval defence is a small company of naval volunteers.

The population of West Australia at the census of 1881 was 32,054, of whom 18,702 were males, and 13,352 females: the Colony is consequently the least populous of the Australian group. The foregoing figures show an increase of only 4,000 on those of the previous decade. The number of Chinese is very small, only 145 being recorded at the last census, a fact which is somewhat surprising, since this race, so eager to assert itself wherever cheap labour is a desideratum, has migrated in large numbers to other parts of the island, and also to New Zealand. The Aborigines number 2,346.

In summing up this brief paper on a Colony which, although more retarded in its growth than its sisters, is now doubtless well on the road to a high place in Greater Britain, it is not possible to conclude with more appropriate words than those of Sir Frederick Broome:—

"Western Australia is not, and may never be, an El Dorado—the present generation has seen such—where the fortune of a lifetime is to be got together in a few years; but, if it does not offer rapid affluence, neither does it, I think, offer the sort of ruin which is generally the reverse of this golden chance. If any class of emigrant, whether he be capitalist or whether he be workman, does not maintain himself there with ease and comfort in his state of life, it will almost always be his own fault. I say

'almost always,' because I fear there is a zero everywhere for the unlucky man who, with every virtue and every opportunity under the sun, fails in everything. I believe that Western Australia's day is at hand, and that it will, before long, become a favourite resort of considerable numbers of those of our people who are crowded out at home, and who desire to try for better fortunes in England-beyond-the-sea. I believe that, within the next twenty or thirty years, thousands of immigrants will land in that Colony, earning their bread easily from the moment they set foot on its shores, a large proportion of them achieving an independent position in due time."

GEOGRAPHY.

POSITION AND BOUNDARIES.—Western Australia, the largest although the least densely peopled of all the Australian colonies, comprises all that portion of the Continent which lies to the westward of the 129th meridian. Its boundaries are: on the west and north the Indian Ocean, on the south the Southern Ocean (a part of the Pacific), and on the east an imaginary line drawn along the 129th meridian, which separates it from South Australia. It has an estimated area of 978,300 square miles, being about eight times the size of the United Kingdom, with a coast-line of about 3,000 miles. A line of coral reefs extends along a considerable portion of the coast, at a little distance from it. The passage between the reefs and the shore affords, in many places, secure anchorage.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Upon the whole, Western Australia exhibits less diversity of surface than perhaps any of the Australian colonies, certainly less than any of those which occupy a corresponding position on the eastern shores of the Continent. Ranges of hills of a moderate elevation stretch along the entire western coast—in the southern portion at a distance of not more than fifteen to twenty miles inland, but further north a flat, and to a large extent sterile, region of considerable extent intervenes between the high lands and the coast. The northern heights appear to attain a greater elevation than those of the south, some detached groups and isolated summits rising to a height of from 2,500 feet to nearly 4,000 feet above the sea-level. A great deal of the country on the western seaboard is heavily timbered; but when once the hilly district is passed, the whole of the immense tract up to the line dividing the Colony from South Australia is believed to be little else than a sandy or stony waste. In the extreme north, and in the north-west, considerable tracts of fertile land have recently been discovered, well suited for pastoral purposes, or for the cultivation of sugar, coffee, rice, and other productions of tropical countries.

The whole western and northern seaboard is fairly well watered, streams from some distance inland finding their way, through numerous openings in the coast ranges, to the sea. The inland limit of westwardly drainage lies upwards of 100 miles from the coast.

ISLANDS.—Numerous islands, for the most part of small size, with coral reefs, stud the coast. On the south are Eclipse Island and the Recherche Archipelago; on the west, going northward, Rottnest Island, the Pelsart,

Easter and Wallabi Groups, Dirk Hartog (the largest island of Western Australia), Dorre Island, and Bernier Island; on the north-west, Barrow Island, the Montebello Isles, and Dampier's Archipelago; and on the north, Bigge's Island, Bathurst Isles, and the Buccaneer Group, with several archipelagoes at present unnamed.

CAPES.—The principal capes are: Cape Pasley, Cape Arid, Cape Le Grand, Point Hood, Cape Riche, Bald Head, Point Nuyts, Cape Chatham Point d'Entrecasteaux, Cape Leeuwin, and Cape Hamelin, on the south; Cape Naturaliste, Cape Bouvard, Cape Peron, Cape Leschenault, Steep Point, Cape Cuvier, Cape Farquhar, Point Cloates, the North-West Cape. Cape Preston, Cape Boileau, Cape Baskerville, and Cape L'Evêque on the west and north-west; and Capes Bougainville and Londonderry on the north.

BAYS AND STRAITS.—For the extent of coast the inlets are not numerous. The principal are: Israelite Bay, Esperance Bay, Doubtful Island Bay, Port Twopeople, King George's Sound, Tor Bay, and Flinders Bay, on the south; Geographe Bay, Leschenault Inlet, Peel Inlet, Breton Bay, Champion Bay, Gartheaume Bay, Shark Bay (which includes Freycinet Estuary and Hamelin Pool), and Exmouth Gulf, on the west; and Nicholl Bay, Lagrange Bay, Roebuck Bay, King Sound, Beagle Bay, Collier Bay, Brunswick Bay, Admiralty Gulf, and Cambridge Gulf, on the north.

The principal straits are: the Naturaliste Channel and Geographe Channel, forming, respectively, the southern and northern entrances to Shark Bay; and Sunday Strait, at the entrance to King Sound.

MOUNTAINS.—Western Australia contains few mountains properly so-called, the highest elevation reached in any part of the Colony falling short of 4,000 feet. Of the ranges best known the principal are: the Stirling Range, in the neighbourhood of King George's Sound, with Ellen's Peak, 3,420 feet high, for the culminating point; the Darling Range, lying along the south-western seaboard at an average distance of about 20 miles inland, of which the highest point is Mount William, in the Murray district, with an elevation of 3,000 feet; the Gairdner Range; and the Smith Range. In the partially explored districts of the western and north-western coasts, to the northward of the 30th parallel, are numerous ranges of hills lying, on the west, some 150 miles inland, and on the north-west, more immediately contiguous to the coast. Some of these, on recent maps, are shown to attain a respectable elevation, as Mount Labouchere, 3,400 feet, Mount Augustus, 3,580 feet, and Mount Bruce, 3,800 feet; but the greater number do not reach a height of 2,000 feet.

RIVERS.—The Swan river is the only one, within the settled portions of the Colony, which is capable of being navigated to any extent, and this, like the rest of the streams in the south-western part of Australia, is liable to sudden floods. Many of the streams marked on the maps are not rivers in the true sense of the term, but merely channels for the conveyance of storm waters from the hilly districts and beyond them to the sea. Some of the rivers of the north-western and northern districts are more worthy of the name, in that their courses are of much greater length, but it is doubtful whether they run throughout the year, and whether they are navigable, even for vessels of light draught, for any considerable distance. The principal of these are: the Greenough, the Murchison, the Gascoyne

(with its affluent the Lyons), the Ashburton, the Fortescue, the Sherlock, the Yule, the De Grey (with its tributary the Oakover), the Fitzroy, the Glenelg, the Prince Regent, and the Ord.

LAKES.—With the exception of Lake Amadeus, which is partly in South Australia, and which has been only imperfectly explored, there are no lakes in Western Australia of any size, so far as is at present known. Those which have up to this time been discovered are shallow, and either salt or saline, and many of them, in the hot season, become either wholly or partially dried up. Some of these which have received distinctive names are: Lake Austin, Lake Barlee, Lake Monger, Lake Moore, Lake Lefroy, Lake Cowan, and Lake Cary.

DIVISIONS, TOWNS, &C.—At present Western Australia is divided, for various purposes, into districts having separate and distinct boundaries. Thus there are five land districts, the Central, Eastern Central, South Eastern, Northern, and Kimberley Districts; 13 electoral districts, magisterial districts, police districts, educational districts, road-boards districts, besides a division of the settled portion of the Colony into counties, of which there are 26. This cumbrous and perplexing arrangement will doubtless undergo modification as the country becomes more thickly peopled.

The capital of the Colony is Perth, an episcopal city, on the north bank of the Swan river, about 11 miles from the sea, with about 5,000 inhabitants. Fremantle at the mouth of the river constitutes its port. Other towns are: Albany, on King George's Sound, the chief place upon the southern coast-line; Northampton, the principal town in the northern mining district, on the west coast, some 50 miles to the northward of the Greenough river; Geraldton, the capital of the Victoria district, a little to the southward of Northampton; York and Northam, between 50 and 60 miles to the eastward of Perth; Guildford, Bunbury, Bussulton, and Newcastle. Carnarvon, on the Gascoyne, a river of the north-west coast, and Derby, on the Fitzroy, in the Kimberley district, are newly established townships, which promise to become important settlements.

TASMANIA.

TASMANIA.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
MAJOR SIR G. C. STRAHAN, R.A., K.C.M.G.

PREMIER AND CHIEF SECRETARY,
THE HON. ADYE DOUGLAS.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
THE HON. J. S. DODDS.

TREASURER,
THE HON. W. H. BURGESS.

MINISTER OF LANDS AND WORKS,
THE HON. N. J. BROWN.

COLONIAL AUDITOR,
W. LOVETT.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. W. L. DOBSON.

PUISNE JUDGE,
HON. W. R. GIBLIN.

TASMANIA.

THE island of Tasmania was discovered in the year 1642 by the Netherlands navigator, Abel Jan Tasman, and was named by him Van Diemen's land in honour of the Viceroy of the Dutch East Indies, Anthony Van Diemen. This appellation it bore down to the year 1853. So little was known of it that, down to 1797, it was supposed to form part of the Australian mainland. In that year, however, Surgeon Bass, after whom Bass's Straits are named, demonstrated that it was a separate island.

It was first formally taken possession of by the English Government in the year 1803, and intended as an auxiliary penal settlement to New South Wales, and in the following year Colonel Collins was sent out with a batch of convicts, founding the present city of Hobart on the west side of the River Derwent. This officer remained in charge of the settlement for a period of six years, and worked hard in his new post, his first steps being directed to building houses and road-making. Difficulties from the want of provisions arose here, as in New South Wales, and the settlement was once or twice at starvation point. Colonel Collins died suddenly in March, 1810, generally respected by the whole of the inhabitants. From this period until the 14th February, 1814, there was no regular governor, the settlement being under the command of one or other of the officers commanding the troops. Governor Macquarie (of New South Wales) visited the new Colony in November, 1811, and exercised pretty freely his faculty for naming after himself every available place which fell under his notice. This visit was very popular, and caused great rejoicing among the settlers.

Colonel Collins was succeeded by Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Davey, who, notwithstanding considerable eccentricity, contributed not a little to the fair start in the race for progress which the colony had already taken. Good progress indeed was made during his rule, more land was got into cultivation, corn was exported and a flour mill erected. The throwing open of the ports, a wise step which Colonel Davey took immediately on assuming office, resulted in the establishment of English merchants in Hobart, and the consequent importation of goods from the mother country. Provision was also made in 1810 for the better administration of justice, and a Deputy Judge Advocate was appointed. In 1816 the first emigrant ship arrived with a large number of passengers, and the year following the foundation stone of a church was laid at Hobart. Some of the more desperate convicts took to bush-ranging, a taste incident to the adventurous habits of a hunting life, so associated with the necessities of early settlement. Colonel Davey met this difficulty with a strong hand, and declared the Colony under martial law, inflicting the severest punishments on all sus-

pected of bushranging. Governor Macquarie, however did not approve of this step, and ordered the proclamation to be withdrawn. This led to Colonel Davey's resignation in April, 1817, and he left the bushranging question to his successor, Colonel William Sorell, one of whose first acts was to make a vigorous and successful appeal to the settlers for aid in putting down the bushranging pest, with the result that in a very short time the bush-rangers were all tracked out and forced into surrender or death. The Colony made rapid strides in agriculture during his governorship; so much so that in 1820 it was able to export wheat to the value of £20,000, a quantity doubled four years later notwithstanding a great increase of population. The growth of wool, too, was beginning to increase; and an export of this valuable material began in 1821, and was soon followed by larger quantities. In short, Colonel Sorell's rule was marked by great increase in moral and material progress, and he left the Colony much regretted in 1824.

Colonel Arthur next succeeded to the Viceroyalty, and on the separation of the Colony from New South Wales in 1825 became its first governor, holding the office for the long period of twelve years. Although his imperious disposition made him generally unpopular, his industry was untiring and his ability undoubted. The "Black War" which occurred during his governorship can in no way be commended. The aborigines had always been very troublesome, and frequent conflicts occurred with the settlers, as in Australia; and Colonel Arthur conceived the somewhat Quixotic idea of catching the whole of the natives and placing them in a separate island and civilising them. About 5,000 troops were collected for this purpose, and duly set out in accordance with a pre-arranged plan, but after an absence of a couple of months they returned—WITH TWO PRISONERS! The troops were accordingly disbanded, and the campaign abandoned, with a cost of £30,000, or £15,000 a head. Catching blacks at such a cost was naturally not popular, and the experiment was not repeated.

Another way in which Colonel Arthur made himself obnoxious was by his long and frequent contests with the infant Press of the Colony. Outmatched by it in argument, he tried to stifle free discussion by passing an Act requiring each paper to obtain a licence from him, and to pay a tax of threepence on every paper issued. It is not to be wondered at that this led to a great outcry, and an appeal to the Government at home, who disallowed the Act, to the great mortification of the Governor.

It should in fairness be added, that during all this turmoil the Colony went on prosperously, and the population more than trebled itself, that good progress was made during his rule, and agriculture was in a thriving state, trade increased on all sides, and the signs of advancing wealth everywhere presented themselves.

Colonel Arthur left the Colony in October, 1836, and was succeeded by no less a personage than Sir John Franklin, the celebrated Arctic explorer. The main events of his career in the Colony were the schemes he introduced for the development of popular education, several important institutions being projected during his administration, a prolonged period of agricultural depression, and a great agitation for the cessation of transportation. Sir John's action with regard to this latter question was not supported by the Home authorities, and he was recalled in 1843, his

successor being Sir John Eardley Wilmot, throughout whose rule the transportation question was a source of much trouble, and forms the principal feature of importance in it. Owing to the cessation of the system in New South Wales in 1841, Van Diemen's Land, to which Norfolk Island had been annexed, was saddled with a perfect invasion of the unwelcome convicts, and was now the only Colony to which criminals from Great Britain were sent. The expense to the Colony for additional police and gaol accommodation was accordingly, and one would think reasonably, asked for from England, but was refused, the settlers being told that they must provide the outlay themselves. To do this exceeded the power of Sir Eardley Wilmot, and he was recalled, but never left the Colony his official failure and the calumny of his opponents preyed upon his health, and probably caused his death in February, 1847.

Sir William Denison assumed office in January, 1847, and held it until 1855. He was one of the most successful of the Governors. During his tenure of office the two main objects of the Colony's desire were attained, viz., the abolition of transportation, and a Constitution. During his rule the electric telegraph was introduced, the country divided into municipalities, and the construction of railways begun. He was succeeded by Sir Henry Young, the first Governor under the new Constitution, who held office from 1855 to 1861, being replaced by Colonel Gore Browne, who remained in power till 1869. During his term of office a great scheme of public work was inaugurated, and the Hobart and Launceston railway commenced. Mr. C. du Cane ruled from 1869 to 1874, Mr. F. A. Weld, C.M.G., from 1875 to 1879, being succeeded by Sir George Strahan, the present Governor.

Since the abolition of transportation and the inauguration of Parliamentary Government, no event which will be of any great interest to the general reader has occurred in the Colony.

The climate of Tasmania is perhaps the healthiest of the whole of the Australasian group. It is naturally less hot than the more northern colonies of the main island, and, owing to the more bracing character of its air, it is much resorted to by invalids from Australia, as well as holiday-makers, its short distance—only a few hours' steam—from Melbourne enabling it to be reached with ease and little expense. Its climate is particularly favourable to Englishmen, resembling as it does that of their own country in a very marked degree, though without some of its disagreeable features. The hot winds of Australia rarely reach Tasmania, and are never of long duration. The mean annual temperature at Hobart is 54½°, the mean summer 62°, and the mean winter temperature 47°. The thermometer very rarely reaches 100°, and as rarely falls below 29°. The average rainfall in 1884 was 24 inches.

The scenery of the island is thoroughly English, reminding one of some of the finest parts of Kent and Surrey. We quote the following description from an interesting lecture delivered at Hobart in 1866 by Mr. James Smith: "There are lanes here than which I know of nothing more thoroughly English in the pages of Mary Russell Mitford, or on the canvas of Gainsborough, Constable or Creswick, or in the beautiful county of Kent itself. All the elements of the picturesque are there—the lofty hedgerows white with blossom in the spring, and crimson with berries in the autumn; the luxuriant foliage, the winding lane, the sweet breath of

the new-mown hay, the sweep of the scythe through the long bush grass, and the rustic bridge spanning a brawling brook; the hop-gardens with their long-drawn aisles of vivid green, the delicate curves and spiral movements of the graceful vine, the sunshine dropping in golden rifts and the shadows falling in dark brown lines—all hint of good old Saxon Kent; and so do the gurgling runnels that wind away in the secrecy and darkness among the pollard willows until they empty their waters into a stream, cool, shadowy, transparent, and impetuous, such as Sir Humphrey Davy or Christopher North would have delighted to angle in, and old Izaak Walton would have loved to have written about."

The Constitution of Tasmania consists of a Governor, nominated by the Crown, a Legislative Council and House of Assembly as in the other Australian Colonies. The Constitution was established by Acts 18 and 34, passed in 1871, and under it the Council consists of 16 members and the assembly of 32. The Governor is aided by a Cabinet consisting of 4 members. Their respective functions and the manner of their election need no special comments in this place, as they do not differ in any essential point from those of the colonies previously described in this work. Local self-government is conceded to the various municipalities, which now number 21. The revenue of these municipalities is derived from rates, certain licences, and a parliamentary grant in aid of the police.

Tasmania contains representatives of all the principal religious bodies, but unfortunately no census of them was taken in 1881, and it is consequently impossible to furnish any very exact account of their relative strength in point of number. The Church of England is under the government of a bishop, and the number of clergy is 58. The Roman Catholic Church has also a bishop, and the various denominations of Nonconformists are under the system of government peculiar to each, and have their synods, presbyteries and conferences, as in Great Britain. Sunday-schools are numerous and well attended. The Statesmen's Year-Book estimates that more than half of the population belong to the Church of England, the Roman Catholics numbering 22 per cent.

The buildings belonging to most of the denominations are usually of a very substantial, and according to our English ideas of architecture, also of a very elegant or neat description. The cathedral at Hobart is a large stone edifice, capable of seating over a thousand persons, and is one of the handsomest buildings in the island.

An important institution is Christ's College, established to promote general education and for the special training of divinity students. There are numerous missionary and other societies in connection with the several religious bodies of Tasmania, all doing active work, and the immigrant settler who feels inclined to assist in this direction will find abundant opportunities.

Tasmania, though a small colony, is not behind its neighbours in the matter of education, to which its legislature has at all times given a warm support; and so much, we are told, is the system in existence approved of that many of the sons of wealthy Australians are sent there to be educated. This system is under the control of a Council, which is charged with the supervision of higher education, and a Board which has the management of the elementary schools. The former body has the power of holding

examinations which have been framed on the model of the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examination Scheme. It also awards annually two Tasmanian scholarships of the value of £200 a year, tenable at one of the universities of the United Kingdom, and two minor scholarships of £40 each, tenable for two years, which are awarded to the senior candidates at the examinations referred to, if they express their intention of studying and competing for the distinction of Tasmanian scholarships. Several other scholarships are also at the disposal of the Council, who also conduct matriculation examinations for the universities of London, Sydney and Melbourne. The Board of Education has much the same functions as the Education Department in London, but in addition has the control of exhibitions awarded by the Tasmanian Parliament. Of these five are annually bestowed upon boys or girls under fourteen years of age who have not during the previous six months been pupils of a Government school, and who have been resident in the Colony for two years immediately preceding the 1st June. These exhibitions are of the value of £20 each, tenable for four years at such school as may be named by the parents and guardians, and approved by the Council. In addition to the above rewards, the Board of Education bestows annually twelve exhibitions of the value of £16 13*s.* 4*d.* each, tenable for four years at a school to be approved by the Board. Of these exhibitions six are for boys and six for girls. Candidates must be between the ages of ten and twelve, and must have attended one of the public schools at least twelve months prior to 1st June. Night schools are established in Hobart and Launceston, and also in some of the country towns. Where these are held under the control of the Board of Education, a free grant of books and school requisites is made by the Government.

The trade of Tasmania is important, whether regarded from the standpoint of international exchange or from that of home manufactures. True, the returns do not of late show any increase, a fact to be accounted for, possibly, by the prevailing mercantile depression which exists throughout the globe, and which itself seems rather on the increase than on the wane, and also by the increasing competition which the Colony has been subjected to by the sister Colonies on the Australian mainland.

It is not easy to estimate with accuracy the extent of its trade with the United Kingdom, as so many of the importations reach Tasmania *viâ* Victoria and New South Wales; but it is calculated that in the year 1884 the exports amounted to nearly 1½ millions, and the imports to £1,656,000; the former are chiefly wool, gold, tin, timber, fruit, hops, grain, hides and skins, and bark; the latter are chiefly English home produce, such as apparel and haberdashery, cottons and woollens, and wrought and unwrought iron.

The home manufactures are important; in addition to the ordinary trades connected with food and attire, there is a growing array of farm implement makers, mills, potteries, shipwrights, tin smelting works and woollen factories. Bonuses for the encouragement of various industries were offered by the Government in 1869, and some of these remain unclaimed up to the present date.

The tariffs are on the same lines of those in the rest of the Australian Colonies, and consist of duties on articles of agricultural produce which can be produced at home, on carriages, ale, nails, cordage, soda crystals, spirits,

tobacco, &c., besides some heavy *ad valorem* duties on most articles which are produced at home, and which vary from 5 to 20 per cent.

The limits of this work will not allow of any lengthened notice of the system of land tenure of Tasmania, and it must suffice to say that every facility is afforded by the Government for the acquisition on most liberal terms of the large tracts of land which are still available, and which would well repay the attention of settlers. The conditions of tenure and the price of the land differs, however, little in principle from the Australian Colonies described in the preceding portion of this work. A feature of the Tasmanian system is the liberal scale of credit allowed on land purchases. In 1885 the number of acres under cultivation was 425,845, and the number leased as sheep-runs over $1\frac{3}{4}$ millions.

Agriculture in Tasmania, although the climate is all that can be desired, is still in a condition bordering on the primitive, but progress in it, if somewhat slow, is steady and sure. As an instance of the favourable nature of the climate it may be mentioned that on the shortest day of the year the farmer can begin to plough at 8 a.m. and can unyoke at 5 p.m. with good daylight at each hour; on the long days farm duties can be attended to from 4 o'clock in the morning till 8 in the evening. The usual cereals and pulse crops of England are cultivated, and potatoes do well.

The live stock of the Colony meets with a good deal of attention with regard to its improvement, and the island has become celebrated for its superior horses, and large numbers are exported at prices which well repay the care bestowed. On the 31st March, 1885, there were in the Colony 27,188 horses, 128,834 cattle, 1,720,027 sheep and lambs, and 57,303 pigs

The cattle of pure breed comprise some choice herds of shorthorns, Herefords and Devons, the last-named breed having of late years been in much demand, owing to its special suitability for the climate. It is said that this breed is very little affected by the drought in comparison with others, being able to endure a dry season, when Herefords or Shorthorns would succumb, that they lay on beef rapidly, and can travel long distances to market without the loss of weight incident to heavier animals. Altogether, the pretty redskins commend themselves very strongly to the islanders, a fact which will, it is hoped, counterbalance the disfavour with which they are regarded in many parts of England.

The merino sheep is the staple breed of Tasmania, and the Colony claims for its flocks a peculiar excellence, a fact apparently justified by the high prices which choice specimens fetch in Sydney and Melbourne. Leicesters and Lincolns have lately been receiving a good deal of notice, and it is found that their wool is quite up to the standard of Great Britain. It may be mentioned that a famous merino ram from this colony—Sir Thomas, the 1st—realized so high a price as 860 guineas, and that general stud sheep fetch from 50 to 300 guineas. Indeed the graziers of the whole of Australia look to Tasmania for stud sheep to improve their flocks.

Agriculture is encouraged by local shows with some good money prizes, as in this country.

Tasmania has been called the garden of Australia, and is radiant with floral beauty. The apples and pears of Tasmania far surpass those of Great Britain in size and appearance, and more than 130 varieties are in cultivation. The pears excel even those of Jersey, and a single fruit

has been known to weigh over 3¼ lbs. It is worthy of note that pear trees in Tasmania reach an enormous size, a *bon chrétien* tree at Launceston is described as 120 feet in circumference, 86 feet in height, 8 feet in girth at 18 inches from the ground, and produced 50 bushels of fruit in a single season.

The growth of apple-trees is amazing. It is no uncommon occurrence, we are told, to see grafts of young apple-trees that have grown six feet in the year of grafting. The predominant forest trees are the *eucalypti*, which rival in proportions the famed *coniferæ* of California. "Lady Franklin's tree," for example, had in 1883 a circumference of 107 feet at a height of 4 feet from the ground; and in the district of New Norfolk there is a tree the trunk of which has been burnt hollow, and affords an apartment 20 feet long wherein picnic parties are held.

Among the fauna of the Colony the most interesting of the *carnivora* are the Tasmanian devil and native tiger, famous for their ferocity, and which have no representatives on the mainland. The duck-billed platypus is most abundant in the fresh waters of the Colony. The wallaby, wombat, and opossum, supply the colonists with valuable skins. Of the 150 species of birds, 15 are peculiar to Tasmania.

The food resources do not call for special notice, as distinct from those of the rest of Australia, and acclimatisation has been mainly restricted to fishes, more particularly the *salmonidæ*, and the result has been very successful.* The rabbit, however, has increased, as in the other colonies, so as to become a serious nuisance.

The revenue of the Colony in 1886 was estimated at £582,825, and the expenditure £586,756, being an increase over that of the previous year in both items.

There are two lines of railway in Tasmania, the main line from Hobart to Launceston, and the Western Railway, both of which are worked by the State. There are several others in course of construction, and telegraphic communication with the continent of Australia was established on 1st May, 1869.

The shipping of the Colony is considerable, and would probably be greater but for the decline which has taken place in the whaling industry. In addition to the ordinary mail steamers which touch at its ports, Tasmania has a company belonging to the island which possesses a small fleet of powerful steamships plying between Hobart, Launceston, and the Australian mainland. The total registered shipping belonging to the Colony on 31st December, 1884, was 175 sailing vessels and 27 steamers, the aggregate burthen being 18,284 tons. The number of vessels entered at the Custom House during the year 1884 was 676 inwards, with a tonnage of 304,574; and 664 outwards, with a tonnage of 309,624.

The mineral industry of Tasmania is now considerable, and it has been of very rapid growth; twenty years ago it was almost unknown. By far the most important metals are gold and tin; the mines from whence these metals are obtained are in both instances widely scattered.

Gold.—The principal gold-mining regions are contiguous to the east and west banks of the river Tamar, about 35 miles from the town of

* For further particulars concerning the fishes of Tasmania, see Literature of International Fisheries Exhibition, vols. vi. p. 274, xiii. pp. 23 and 398–404. London: Clowes & Sons, 1884.

Launceston. To the west are Beaconsfield and Salisbury; to the east, Lefroy, Back Creek, and Denison. Lisle lies about the same distance nearly due east of Launceston; the Minnow gold-field about 60 miles to the north-west; Lyndhurst and Gladstone about 80 miles north-eastward; and the Cam and the Hellyer rivers on the north-west coast. There are other places where gold has been found, and the neighbourhood of the Pieman (now Corinna) and Whyte rivers, on the west coast, give promise of becoming richly auriferous. The output of gold varies considerably in different years, but the industry may on the whole be said to be progressing. The value of the gold raised in 1884 was £160,404. The principal mines are the Great Tasmania at Beaconsfield, and the New Churn at Lefroy, but other good dividend mines exist, and the official manual published by the Tasmanian Government states that there is plenty of room for the energy of mining capitalists.

Silver.—The ore of this metal is abundant, the principal deposits being at Mounts Bischoff and Ramsay on the north-west coast, Mount Claude in the western district, and at Penguin Creek. Mining for it is attracting considerable attention, and some good results are expected.

Tin.—This metal is principally found in alluvial deposits, and some rich ore has been brought to surface. The most important venture is the celebrated Mount Bischoff mine, which has been in work since 1873; but there are many others paying handsome dividends.

Copper.—This metal is not found in quantity sufficient to pay for working its ore.

Iron.—Iron ore exists in abundance, but no successful attempt has yet been made to work it.

Bismuth.—This metal was discovered at Mount Ramsay in 1873, and its production is being undertaken by a Hobart company.

Coal.—Coal is very widely disseminated throughout Tasmania, especially along the north-west, eastern, and southern coasts, where in certain localities it has been, and now is, extensively worked. The principal coal measures of the north-west coast are at the River Don, and on the Mersey at Latrobe, and surrounding districts. The mineral here is of a coarse bituminous quality, approaching to the common slate coal of England. Launceston is partly supplied with this coal. In the Fingal district, on the eastern coast, very superior coal exists, although, owing to the difficulties of transit, little has been done to develop it. In the Mount Nicholas range there is a thickness of about 900 feet occupied by the coal measures series, and containing seams of a very rich bituminous coal. At Ben Lomond, Avoca, and at the St. Paul's river, extensive coal measures also exist, but likewise unworked. At the Douglas River, near Bicheno, on the east coast, at Port Seymour, Port Arthur, and other places, and also in the Huon district, coal has been found, and some of the mines are now being worked for domestic supply.

The other important minerals are asbestos, limestone, slate, and some good clay for pottery purposes.

The present military defence of Tasmania is composed entirely of volunteers, but proposals for a permanent force come before the Legislature from time to time. The number of the volunteers of all ranks, according to the last edition of 'The Australian Handbook,' was 1,016. Batteries are erected on the Derwent and Tamar, and the construction of other batteries

is under consideration. The Colony also possesses one or more torpedo boats.

The total population of Tasmania, on 3rd April, 1881, was 115,705, of whom 61,162 were males, and 54,543 females. The increase on the previous census was 16,377—8,309 males and 8,068 females. The estimated population on 31st December, 1884, was 130,541. The aborigines are extinct, and there are comparatively few Chinese, only 844 being returned at the census of 1881.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION, EXTENT, &C.—Tasmania—better known under its old title of Van Diemen's Land—is a large island to the southward of the Australian Continent, from which it is separated by Bass Strait. It derives its name from having been discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman, to whom we are also indebted for a knowledge of the existence of New Zealand.. In size Tasmania is about one-sixth smaller than Ireland, and somewhat larger than the island of Ceylon. Its greatest length from north to south is 210 miles, it greatest breadth 200 miles, and its area, inclusive of the adjacent islands which belong to the Colony, 26,215 square miles, or 16,778,000 acres.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The island of Tasmania bears a curious resemblance, as shown on the map, to a heart. It is supposed that it was at one time connected with the Australian mainland, and this presumption is to a large extent borne out by the analogy of the flora of the two countries. The interior of the country presents a diversified aspect, consisting of high ranges of hills and isolated peaks, alternating with beautiful valleys and extensive plains. The southern and western parts of the island are particularly remarkable for bold and commanding scenery. The coast, which is rocky and bold in its outlines, is broken by numerous inlets, many of which constitute good natural harbours. The rivers, which are numerous, are some of them of considerable size, and a few are navigable for a portion of their course by vessels of some 500 tons burthen.

PENINSULAS.—On the east coast are Forestier and Tasman Peninsulas, connected with the mainland by an extremely narrow Isthmus, called East Bay Neck, and Freycinet Peninsula, forming with the mainland the inlet known as Oyster Bay. In the immediate neighbourhood of Tasman Peninsula, is a much smaller one known as Ralph Bay Peninsula, which forms the eastern shore of the Estuary of the Derwent.

ISLANDS.—The islands belonging to Tasmania are very numerous. The principal are the Furneaux group, off the north-east coast, which include Flinders Island, Barren Island, Clarke Island, and several smaller ones; Robbins Island, Hunter Island, and Three Hummock Island, at the western end of Bass Strait, near the north-western projection of the mainland; King Island, in Bass Strait, about midway between Tasmania and the Australian Continent; with Brenir Island, Maria Island, and Schonten Island, on the east coast.

CAPES.—The principal headlands are:—On the south coast, South West Cape, South Cape (the most southerly point of the island), Tasman Head, Cape Raoul and Cape Pillar; on the east coast, Cape Bernier, Cape Bougainville, Cape Bailly, Cape Forestier, Cape Lodi, Long Point, St. Patrick Head, Cape St. Helen, Eddystone Point, and Cape Naturaliste; on the north coast, Cape Portland, Waterhouse Point, Stony Head, Flinders Point, Port Sorell Point, Rocky Head, Circular Head, and Cape Grim; on the west coast, West Point, Bluff Point, Sandy Cape, Cape Sorell, Point Hibbs, Rocky Point, Pollard Head, and Hilliard Head.

BAYS AND STRAITS.—The west coast is bold and forbidding, but the other coasts are more accessible. Even on the west coast there are three available harbours, known as Port Davey, Macquarie Harbour, and Pieman River. On the north coast the principal harbours are Stanley, at Circular Head; Emu Bay, Port Frederick, Port Sorell, Port Dalrymple (at the mouth of the Tamar), Anderson Bay, and Ringarooma Bay. On the east and south coasts are numerous inlets, the principal being George Bay, Oyster Bay Rosser Bay, Port Arthur, in Tasman Peninsula, Storm Bay (with its prolongations, Norfolk Bay, and Frederick Henry Bay), D'Entrecasteaux Channel, South Port, Recherche Bay, and South Cape Bay.

The principal straits are Bass Strait, about 150 miles wide, which separates Tasmania from Australia; Banks Strait, between Tasmania and the Islands of the Furneaux group, and Geographe Strait, between Schonten Island and the Freycinet Peninsula.

MOUNTAINS.—The mountains of Tasmania belong to the same system as the eastern Cordillera of Australia, and they have the same geological characteristics. They occur as two distinct chains, separated by a central district, which affords a means of communication between the north and the south of the island. That to the eastward, which runs nearly north and south, parallel with the east coast, at an average distance of 40 miles from it, has a mean elevation of close upon 4,000 feet. The principal peaks are Mount Arthur, 3,895 feet; Mount Barrow, 4,644 feet; Mount Victoria, 3,964 feet; Ben Nevis, 3,910 feet; Ben Lomond, 5,010 feet; Mount Nicholas, 2,812 feet; and Brown Mountain, 2,598 feet. The western chain consists of an elevated tableland in the centre of the island, which contains several considerable lakes, and has numerous lofty peaks springing from it at various points. Among these are Table Mountain, 3,596 feet; Miller's Bluff, 3,977 feet; Dry's Bluff, 4,257 feet; Ironstone Mountain, 4,736 feet; Cradle Mountain, 5,069 feet, the highest point in Tasmania; Mount Hugel, 4,700 feet; Mount William, 4,360 feet; and Mount Hobhouse, 4,031 feet. Other ranges and peaks diverge from the central tableland towards the south, west and north. Among those to the north are Mount Rolland, 4,047 feet; Black Bluff, 4,381 feet; and Valentine's Peak, 3,637 feet; while to the west are Mount Dundas, 3,922 feet; the Eldon Range, 4,789 feet; the Frenchman's Cap, 4,756 feet; and to the south, Wyld's Crag, 4,399 feet; Mount Field, 4,721 feet; the Arthur Range, 3,668 feet; Mount Picton, 4,340 feet; Mount Wellington, in the immediate vicinity of Hobart, the capital, 4,166 feet; Collins' Bonnet, 4,131 feet; Adamson's Peak, 4,017 feet, and Mount La Perouse, 3,800 feet.

RIVERS.—The rivers of Tasmania, most of which have their origin in the central tableland, are numerous, and some of them attain a very considerable size. The most important are:—on the north, the Tamar, formed by the union,

at Launceston, of the north and south Esk, and flowing from that place northward into Bass Strait; the Montague, the Duck, the Detention, the Cam, the Blythe, the Leven, the Firth, and the Ringarooma; on the west, the Arthur, the Pieman (with its affluents the White, the Huskisson, and the Mackintosh); the King and the Gordon, each with numerous tributaries, falling into Macquarie Harbour; the Davey, falling into Port Davey; and the Spring, which has its outlet in Bathurst Harbour; on the east, the Huon, the Derwent, on which is Hobart, the Capital of the island, and the Coal River. The Tamar, the Huon, and the Derwent, are all streams of some magnitude, navigable in their lower courses, which form fine estuaries. Other rivers of less importance than those mentioned are the Piper, the Little Forester, the Trent, or Great Forester, and the Mussel Roe, on the north-east; with the Anson, the George, the little Swanport, and the Prosser, on the east coast.

LAKES.—On the tablelands are several freshwater lakes of considerable area, which form the head waters of the more important rivers. The largest of these are that known as the Great Lake, occupying upwards of 28,000 acres; Lake Sorell, 12,300 acres; Lake St. Clair, 9,400 acres; Arthur Lake, 8,000 acres; and Lake Echo, 8,500 acres.

DIVISIONS, TOWNS, &C.—Tasmania is divided into 18 counties, and also, for representative purposes, into Electoral districts which do not coincide with the counties. The principal towns are Hobart, the capital, an episcopal city of close upon 30,000 inhabitants, picturesquely situated on the river Derwent, at the foot of Mount Wellington; Launceston, in the north, on the river Tamar, the second town in the Colony, with an estimated population of about 18,000; Georgetown, a watering-place at the mouth of the Tamar, Longford, New Norfolk and Mount Bischoff. Lefroy and Beaconsfield are important mining centres.

NEW ZEALAND.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR WILLIAM F. DRUMMOND JERVOIS, G.C.M.G., R.E.

PREMIER AND ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. ROBERT STOUT.

TREASURER, POSTMASTER-GENERAL, AND COMM. OF STAMP DUTIES,
HON. SIR JULIUS VOGEL, K.C.M.G.

PUBLIC WORKS,
HON. EDW. RICHARDSON, C.M.G.

NATIVE AFFAIRS AND DEFENCE,
HON. JOHN BALLANCE.

CROWN LANDS,
HON. J. BALLANCE.

JUSTICE,
HON. J. A. TOLE.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. PATRICK ALPHONSUS BUCKLEY.

MINISTER OF MINES,
HON. WILLIAM JAMES MUDIE LARNACH, C.M.G.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
SIR JAMES PRENDERGAST.

Puisne Judge, Canterbury: A. J. JOHNSTON.
" *Auckland*: T. B. GILLIES.
" *Wellington*: C. W. RICHARD.
" *Dunedin*: J. S. WILLIAMS.

AGENT-GENERAL IN LONDON,
SIR FRANCIS DILLON BELL, K.C.M.G.

NEW ZEALAND.

NEW ZEALAND consists of two large islands, called respectively the North Island and the South Island, and a smaller one, called Stewart's Island, at the southern extremity of the group. Several small islets, of which the principal are the Chatham Islands and the Auckland Islands, are generally included under the general designation of New Zealand; but as these are at some considerable distance from what may be termed the mainland, and are for the most part uninhabited, they demand no more than a mere passing notice. The main group lies between 34° 25′ and 47° 17′ south latitude, and 160° 26′ and 178° 36′ east longitude. It is thus very nearly the Antipodes of the British Islands, and is often called "the Great Britain of the Southern Hemisphere." As there appears to be in this country a prevalent misconception as to its position with regard to Australia, it may not be out of place to mention here that although New Zealand is generally classed among the Australian Colonies, it is in reality separated from the Australian Continent by at least 1,000 miles of sea, as destitute of islands as is the Atlantic between Ireland and America.

The three principal islands have a total length of 1,100 miles, and a breadth of from 46 to 250 miles. The coast line is therefore of necessity large in proportion to their area. These islands, taken together, are only slightly less in extent than Great Britain and Ireland.

Like many others of the islands of the Pacific, New Zealand is of volcanic origin. It contains several mountain ranges of considerable altitude, particularly in the South Island, throughout the entire length of which runs an almost unbroken chain, culminating in Mount Cook, upwards of 12,000 feet high. The mountains of the North Island, which are principally found on the Eastern coast, are not so lofty, if we except a few volcanoes, mostly extinct, which attain an elevation of from 6,000 to 9,000 feet. One of these, Mount Egmont, an isolated cone on the shores of Cook's Strait, rears its snow-capped summit upwards of 8,000 feet above the surrounding forest, and forms a most striking object for many miles inland, and on approaching it from the sea.

Although New Zealand may thus be styled a mountainous country, it is not so in the same sense as Switzerland, since in both islands there is no lack of very extensive plains, possessing a fertile soil, and either well-grassed or capable of being made so, which are adapted either for cultivation or for pasturage. Many of the mountains of the North Island are covered with a dense growth of forest, but, as this does not extend to the lowlands, the settler is spared the loss of time and the hard labour which, in so many new countries, is entailed upon him from the necessity of

clearing every yard of land before the ordinary processes of agriculture can be proceeded with.

Mr. Anthony Trollope refers to the scenery of New Zealand thus:—"In New Zealand everything is English. The scenery, the colour, and general appearance of the waters and the shape of the hills are very like that with which we are familiar in the west of Ireland and the highlands of Scotland. The mountains are brown and sharp and serrated; the rivers are bright and rapid, and the lakes are deep and blue and bosomed among the mountains. If a long-sleeping Briton could be set down among the Otago hills, and told on awaking that he was travelling in Galway or in the west of Scotland, he might be easily deceived, though he knew those countries well."

The whole coast line, both in the North and the South Islands, abounds in good natural harbours, and the rivers and streams are almost innumerable. With the opportunities which are afforded from one end of the country to the other for carrying on an extensive maritime trade, New Zealand bids fair, in the not distant future, to be a great commercial centre in the southern seas. Other natural features, which, though not of so much importance in the eyes of the man of commerce, will yet be found, as population increases in Australia, to contribute to the prosperity of the country by the attraction which they will have for invalids and tourists, are the hot springs of the North Island, which already enjoy a high reputation for their medicinal virtues; and the fiords or arms of the sea, on the south-west coast of the South Island, which often extend inland for a considerable distance, amidst mountain scenery of much grandeur and beauty.

New Zealand enjoys a remarkably temperate climate. From the fact that its surface is very diversified, that it extends, from north to south, a distance of some 800 miles, and that it possesses extensive forests, it naturally follows that the same climate does not prevail throughout the whole country. Nevertheless it is very equable, the extremes of temperature being not nearly so great as in the British Islands. In the north the climate approaches that of Italy, while in Otago, at the extreme south, it is very similar to that of London and the south of England. To be more precise, it may be stated that the mean annual temperature at Auckland is nearly the same as at Rome; at Wellington, nearly the same as at Milan; at Dunedin, nearly the same as at London. In many parts snow never falls, and excepting the mountain ranges rarely lies more than a few days upon the ground. Many fruits, only grown by us at home at great pains and cost in hot-houses, ripen freely in the open air in New Zealand. Observations made throughout the Colony show that the mean annual temperature is in spring 55°; in summer 63°; in autumn 57°; and in winter 48.° There is, in all parts of New Zealand, whatever may be the season of the year, a prevalence of westerly winds, which frequently veer to south-west and south-east, bringing with them heavy weather.

Unlike Australia, New Zealand is never visited with droughts of long continuance; indeed the climate, like our own, is somewhat humid. Of its exceptionally salubrity, there can be no question. This opinion is not based solely upon the low percentage of deaths in New Zealand as compared with Great Britain. A conclusion arrived at from such premises would be very likely to prove fallacious, since it must be borne in mind that the country receives a continual influx of immigrants, who, it may be

reasonably inferred, are persons of fair constitution, and comparatively young. Such people, who probably form a very considerable proportion of the population, may be looked upon from the Insurance Office point of view as better "lives" than an equal number of individuals taken indiscriminately from among the population of any portion of the British Islands. The comparatively slight variations of temperature at different times and at different seasons, the purification of the atmosphere by the frequent winds, and the fact that, from the position of the islands, every wind that blows has traversed, before reaching them, many hundreds, sometimes thousands, of miles of ocean, all contribute to account for the physical well being of the inhabitants.

The honour of the actual discovery of New Zealand must be accorded to the Dutch Navigator, Tasman, who visited it in 1642, discovering Van Dieman's Land during the same voyage. As, however, he does not appear to have landed, the knowledge of the country derived by Europeans from his account of it must have been of very limited extent, since he knew nothing of the islands beyond what could be seen from the masthead of his vessel. It was our own countryman, Captain Cook, to whom we are so largely indebted for what we now know of the geography of the Pacific, who made us acquainted with the nature of the country and the character of its inhabitants. The aborigines were evidently of a much higher type than those of the Australian continent. They are a branch of the Polynesian race, and according to their own traditions came about 600 years ago from "Hawaiki," which ethnologists interpret to mean either Hawaii (the Sandwich Islands), or Savaii in the Samoa group. They are divided into some twenty clans, analogous to those of the Scottish Highlands.

Cook's first visit was paid in 1769, but he touched at the islands on several occasions during his subsequent voyages, and succeeded in making, before his final departure, a more or less complete exploration of its coasts. The aborigines were divided into numerous tribes, which were engaged in almost constant wars one with another. An interesting account of the impression on the minds of the natives when they first saw Captain Cook's ship has been preserved. "They took it at first for a gigantic bird, and were struck with the beauty and size of its wings as they supposed the sails to be. But on seeing a smaller bird unfledged descending into the water, and a number of parti-coloured beings getting into it, apparently in human shape, the bird was regarded as a houseful of divinities. Nothing could exceed their astonishment. The sudden death of their chief (it proved to be their great fighting general), was regarded as a thunderbolt of these new gods, and the noise made by the musket as thunder." Had Cook lived, it is probable that, by his means a scheme of colonisation would have speedily been set on foot, but after his death, the country seems to have dropped again into obscurity. As has been the case in so many distant lands, the first true pioneers of civilization were the missionaries. In 1814, thirty-seven years after Captain Cook's last visit to New Zealand, a few representatives of the English Church Missionary Society landed in the North Island, less with the intention of colonising than with the hope of converting the natives to Christianity.

The first practical steps in the direction of settlement were taken by the New Zealand Land Company, composed of a very strong and

influential body of gentlemen headed by Lord Durham, and having much the same ideas as those which actuated the South Australian Colonisation Society. The proposal to found a new Colony was at first bitterly opposed by the Government of the day, but in consequence of the energetic action of the Company, who sent out agents with large funds to purchase land of the natives, the Government ultimately gave way, and despatched as Consul Captain Hobson, who arrived in January 1840. One of his first steps on assuming office was to call a meeting of the natives and explain to them the object of his mission, with the view of entering into a treaty for placing the sovereignty of their island in Her Majesty the Queen. He was not at first successful, the natives fearing that if they acceded to the proposal, their land would be taken from them; but being reassured on this point, the majority of the chiefs ultimately signed the treaty in February of the same year. By the terms of this treaty, called the Treaty of Waitangi, the chiefs, in return for their acknowledgment of the supremacy of the Queen of England, were guaranteed for themselves and their people the exclusive possession of their lands so long as they wished to retain them, and they, on their side, accorded to the Crown the exclusive right of pre-emption over such lands as might, from time to time, come into the market. It will thus be seen that the acquisition of land in New Zealand by European settlers was effected in a manner entirely different from that which obtained in other colonies; for, although the right of pre-emption by the Crown was subsequently waived, no land could be obtained from natives unless they were perfectly willing to part with it. It is true that lands have in some instances been confiscated as a punishment for native insurrections, but, with this exception, all lands have passed from natives to Europeans by the ordinary processes of bargain and sale.

Captain Hobson's next action was to place himself in communication with the New Zealand Company's agents, and ascertain what they were doing in the way of colonisation. He found that besides acquiring various blocks of land in the North and South Islands, they had formed a permanent settlement at Wellington, at which they were organising a system of government incompatible with the Queen's authority, which he therefore promptly suppressed.

Captain Hobson in these early days seems to have acted with great equity and judgment, particularly in guarding the treaty rights of the natives to their land, setting a firm face against all illicit bargains. In June of 1840 the settlement was made a colony by Charter under the Great Seal, Captain Hobson naturally becoming the first Governor. This eminent public servant died at his post in September 1842, being succeeded by Captain R. Fitzroy, who, however, did not reach the Colony till a year afterwards. In the interval occurred that lamentable incident, the massacre of white settlers by the natives at Wairu, in the South Island. Shortly after this the Company made strenuous efforts to obtain a share in the Executive Government, but this was twice disallowed by the Home authorities. Captain Fitzroy's term of office was in all respects a stormy one, the native chiefs rising in rebellion, open and covert, against the terms of the Waitangi treaty. With only 150 soldiers, and destitute of any military facilities, this governor deemed it prudent to come to a compromise with the rebels, fearing the effect upon the minds of the natives generally

of the certain defeat which he must sustain in active warfare. Receiving, however, reinforcements from Sydney, Captain Fitzroy took the field, sustaining in his first expedition a decided defeat. Two other expeditions followed this, and at length the success of the British arms was assured, Captain Fitzroy suffering from the irony of fate, since, having been neglected in his peril, he was recalled in the moment of victory.

Captain (afterwards Sir George) Grey succeeded to the Governorship in November 1845; having the good fortune to be surrounded by ministers of exceptional ability, and arriving in the Colony at a fortunate turn in its affairs, he takes his place amongst the successful Governors of New Zealand. Colonel Gore Browne—after an interregnum of nearly two years—succeeded to power, and during his viceroyalty in 1853, responsible government, which, however, did not provide for ministerial responsibility, was inaugurated, having had its inception under Colonel Wynyard, the interim Governor. The name of the then Secretary of State for the Colonies, Sir John Pakington (afterwards Lord Hampton) will always be most honourably associated with the infusion of this vital force not only into New Zealand but into other English colonies. The first Parliament met on 24th of May, 1854, and the first resolution of the Lower House may well be recorded here. Moved by Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield, it was as follows: "That amongst the objects this House desires to see accomplished without delay, the most important is the establishment of ministerial responsibility in the conduct of legislative and executive proceedings by the Governor." The Home Government shortly afterwards (May 1856), fulfilled the substance of this resolution by altering the Constitution already granted, and established responsible government in its fullest form, but unfortunately without any special provisions for the representation of the native races.

Early in 1868, when Sir George Bowen was Governor, a vigorous system of public works was instituted; no less a sum than £19,000,000 of public money having been expended for these and other purposes during this Governorship. Sir James Fergusson became Governor on the 14th June, 1873, but resigned office in a year and a half, being succeeded by the Marquis of Normanby, who remained till 1879. Sir Hercules Robinson commenced his viceroyalty in March of that year, and remained but a short time. He conducted the affairs of this Colony as ably as he had carried on those of New South Wales, being succeeded in his turn by Sir Arthur Gordon. The present Governor—that distinguished engineer whose name will always be honoured in connection with the defences of the Australian colonies—Sir William Drummond Jervois, succeeded Sir Arthur Gordon in January 1883.

Dealing now with constitutional matters, it is important to state that up to 1847 New Zealand remained a Crown Colony, the Government being administered by a Governor appointed by the Crown, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Council. Under this system, the Governor had very large powers, since the only control over him was that exercised by the Home Government. The Executive Council consisted of the Governor and three official members, while the Legislative Council was made up of the Executive Council and three non-official members nominated by the Governor. At that time Auckland was the seat of Government, which has since been moved to Wellington. In 1852, before the expiration

of the period over which the provisional charter granted in 1847 was to extend, the Imperial Parliament granted a new constitution to New Zealand (15 & 16 Vic. cap. 72), and in the following year it came into force and is still operative. The Legislature, under this Constitution, consists of a Governor, a Legislative Council, composed of life members nominated by the Crown, and a House of Representatives elected by the people, under a franchise which practically amounts to household suffrage. The House of Representatives is now elected for a nominal term of three years, but is, like our own House of Commons, subject to dissolution at any time within that period should circumstances appear to render a new appeal to the constituencies desirable, and consists of 95 members, including 4 Maori members elected by the natives. With certain necessary reservations, the Legislature is empowered to make laws for the Colony, and to deal with its revenues. The country was, by the same enactment, divided into six provinces, each with its Elective Superintendent, and its own Elective Provincial Council, competent to deal with all matters affecting purely local interests, but subject to and controlled by the Colonial Legislature.

The Executive Administration rests with the Governor, acting under the advice of an Executive Council which consists of the responsible ministers for the time being. This body, composed, like our own Cabinet, of the chiefs of the party which for the time possesses the confidence of the majority in Parliament, really conducts all public business, each member undertaking the control of some particular department of government, and advising the Governor in all matters relating to it. The Executive Council only acts collectively in cases in which the law requires the formal authority of the Governor in Council. The number of ministers—all of whom must occupy seats in the Legislature—is limited to ten, including one minister, without office, in the Legislative Council, and two Maori, or half-caste, ministers.

The administration of the law is confided to the Judges of the Supreme Court—of whom there are five, a chief justice and four *puisne* judges—and to the district judges, the resident magistrates, and the wardens on gold-fields. There are also local justices of the peace, with functions similar to those exercised by the unpaid magistracy in England. The judges, as with us, hold office during good behaviour, which practically gives them complete security of tenure, and their salaries may not be reduced during their term of office. The subordinate judicial officers hold their appointments during pleasure, their salaries being voted yearly by the House of Representatives.

For the maintenance of the law and order the Executive has at its disposal (1) the Militia, which consists of the whole adult male population, liable to be called on for active service in the Colony, if required; (2) a volunteer force, consisting of companies formed in various parts of the Colony; (3) a regular body of constabulary, comprising the regular civil force, 474 strong, distributed throughout the country, and a semi-military force—on the model of the Royal Irish Constabulary—numbering some 374 men, which is stationed in the North Island.

Appointments to the public service are made at the discretion of the ministers of the Governor in the Colony: the suitability of the candidates being tested by Standard Civil Service Examinations. The number of vacancies which occur annually is probably very small, and special stress

is laid, in all the handbooks on the Colony which have hitherto appeared, on the fact that persons going out to New Zealand with the hope of obtaining public employment are doomed to almost certain disappointment.

In 1875 the Provincial system of local government was abolished, and in its place provision was made for the division of the Colony into Counties, and the establishment of County Councils. These councils are elected by the ratepayers in the road districts in each county triennially, and their functions are to execute necessary public works, and to attend generally to the good government and practical well-being of the county in regard to local matters. The councils have power to levy rates for the purpose of providing such funds as they may from time to time require; but the amount which may be levied annually on every pound value of rateable property is strictly limited. The Boards of the Road districts, also elective, are charged with the making and maintenance of all district roads, and all bridges and ferries on such roads. Town District Boards are formed for the discharge of public business in towns not sufficiently large to be created boroughs. Municipal Corporations, the members of which are elected by the townsfolk, with powers analogous to those possessed by similar bodies in England, were established almost from the commencement of the Colony. There are also Harbour Boards for the management and maintenance of the harbours of the Colony, and River Boards for the conservation of the banks of rivers.

There are also Central and Local Boards of Health. The Central Board is at Wellington—the seat of Government—and is appointed by the Governor. Where local bodies exist, these form the Local Boards of Health; but where there are no local bodies, Boards of Health are appointed by the central organization at Wellington.

New Zealand is divided ecclesiastically into six dioceses: Christchurch, Waiapu, Auckland, Wellington, Nelson and Dunedin, the primacy being at present vested in the Bishop of Christchurch. The Church is supported by grants from societies in England, by land endowments in the Colony, and by voluntary contributions. There are about 215 clergymen, some of whom are Maoris. The Presbyterians are next in point of numbers, the Roman Catholics third, and the Wesleyans fourth. The system of education is entirely secular and free, and is under the control of a Minister of Education. The University of New Zealand is empowered by Royal Charter to confer degrees; affiliated to it are three colleges devoted to the purposes of higher or university education, and also many high schools and grammar schools. Education generally is much advanced and has been carefully fostered by successive governments.

Having regard to the fact that the colonization of New Zealand, in the true sense of the term, only dates from 1840, it must be admitted that the country enjoys a remarkable commercial prosperity. Its chief trade is with the United Kingdom and the Australian colonies; but the United Kingdom absorbs by far the greatest proportion. This is what might reasonably be expected, since a manufacturing community like that of Great Britain requires a constant supply of that raw material which a newly settled and sparsely populated country like New Zealand is so well able to furnish, while the younger country has need, in its turn, of manufactured articles which it cannot at first hope to produce for itself. At present the exports from New Zealand to Great Britain, and the other

countries with which it has commercial relations, have scarcely equalled the imports from those countries; but, with the increase of population and of capital, there seems no reason why New Zealand should not, at no distant date, take a high place among the enterprising colonies of the Pacific.

Of the productions of New Zealand which form articles of export some are indigenous and some are the direct result of European colonization. Under the first head may be mentioned timber, the trade in which has shown a considerable increase in recent years; Kauri gum, a remarkable vegetable product lying beneath the surface of the ground, which has to be sought for by a process akin to surface-mining; *Phormium tenax*, the so-called native flax; and gold, which has formed one of the principal exports of the Colony from an early period of its settlement to the present day. The principal exports which have been produced directly or indirectly by human agency are those connected with the pastoral industries, such as wool, tallow, hides, sheep-skins, &c., with meats (preserved and frozen) and dairy produce; and those which have resulted from the cultivation of the soil, such as wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, flour, &c. It will be seen, from the following brief summary of the returns of the principal exports in 1872 and in 1884, that, in the brief period of twelve years, there has been a marked increase in the annual value of nearly all productions of the country but gold. The decrease in the yield of gold is due to many of the alluvial diggings having been worked out, and to quartz-mining, an industry which requires considerable capital, not having yet been fully developed.

Articles Exported.	Value.		Articles Exported.	Value.	
	1872.	1884.		1872.	1884.
	£	£		£	£
Wool	2,537,919	3,267,527	Oats	64,015	267,286
Tallow	68,788	234,829	Flour	7,554	33,342
Leather	18,219	37,602	Potatoes	827	53,536
Hides	31,763	38,199	Butter	4,462	66,593
Sheep-skins	18,245	44,178	Cheese	4,379	25,095
Rabbit-skins	..	107,514	Preserved meats	161,840	59,224
Gold	1,730,992	988,953	Frozen meats	..	345,129
Wheat	111,219	436,729	Kauri gum	154,167	342,151
Barley	2,464	25,138	Timber	26,718	152,932

The proportion which the value of the wool exported bears to that of all the other articles mentioned in the above list, indicates that sheep-farming forms one of the principal industries of the Colony.

It has at length been found practicable, after repeated failures, to send meat to this country in the carcass, by first freezing it, and then packing it in the ship in specially prepared chambers, by means of which it can be kept at a temperature below the freezing point throughout the entire voyage to England. It is now generally admitted that meat preserved by this process is in every respect equal to that ordinarily sold in our butchers' shops—indeed, a suspicion prevails that the butchers not unfrequently dispose of it to their customers as English mutton. If, as there seems no reason to doubt, New Zealand mutton can be supplied for the English market at

prices which, although somewhat lower than those obtained for the home product, will still leave a sufficient margin of profit to the producer, the trade which will naturally result from this novel experiment must give a wonderful impetus to the sheep-farming industry in the Colony.

Next in importance to the pastoral industry come the various branches of agriculture, which have had a remarkable development in recent years. The principal agricultural product is wheat, the exports of which, as will be seen from the above table, had reached, in 1884, a value nearly four times as great as in 1872, while a large increase is shown, in the same period, in the exports of flour. Barley, oats, and potatoes are also sent abroad in considerable quantities, although, for some reason not immediately apparent, the trade in potatoes is subject to extraordinary fluctuations, the annual value of the exports sometimes amounting to many thousands of pounds, and at other times to less than as many hundreds. With the increased facilities for transport which have been afforded by the introduction of railways, the prospects of corn growers have immensely improved, and New Zealand bids fair to become, ere long, one of the important grain-producing countries of the globe.

But, while the pastoral and agricultural industries contribute so largely to the prosperity of the Colony, the people of New Zealand have long been fully alive to the necessity of establishing in their midst manufactories for the production of many of the articles which they are at present obliged to import so largely from other countries, and notably from Great Britain, and it may here be observed that the tariffs of the Colony are somewhat more complicated than those of the Australian colonies, and they appear to be less favourable to the English exporter. As this important matter will be referred to in detail in the special Handbook which New Zealand is preparing for the Colonial and Indian Exhibition of 1886, it need not be dilated on in this place. Already the Colony has succeeded in rendering itself practically independent of the outside world in regard to such commodities as biscuits and soap, whilst the manufacture of boots and shoes has attained very considerable proportions. A few woollen factories have also been established, which produce cloth of very good quality, and others are either about to begin work or are in course of erection. Locomotive engines and railway plant are now made in the Colony, both at Government and private works. As a sign, moreover, that the advocates of temperance principles, as the term is ordinarily understood, are not in an overwhelming majority in New Zealand, it may be pointed out that the Colony contains 99 breweries, which produce annually some 5,000,000 gallons of beer, as a partial contribution towards the quantity required for home consumption. Recently, an attempt has been made to manufacture the finer qualities of paper from some of the native grasses, but it is too soon yet to say whether or not the venture is likely to prove a commercial success. The coarser kinds of paper, suitable for wrapping purposes, have been made in the Colony for some time past.

With such an abundant supply of suitable timber, it would be remarkable if ship-building had not become an important local industry, and hence we are not surprised to learn that most of the vessels engaged in the coasting-trade have been built in the Colony, as well as many others trading between the ports of New Zealand and the Australian colonies and the islands of the southern seas. Our enterprising fellow-subjects have,

however, not been content with this, but have constructed, at one time or another, no less than eighty-three steamships, many of them of iron, which have, for the most part, been fitted with engines of colonial manufacture. The building of vehicles of all descriptions, and the making of machinery and general fitments for factories, also form very important industries, while there are some twenty-three manufactories of agricultural implements, for which, as may readily be conceived, there is an ever-increasing demand. A considerable impetus has been given to the local manufacture of brass and copper goods from the fact that all the principal prizes in this section at the recent Exhibitions at Sydney and Melbourne have been awarded to New Zealand firms.

The total area of New Zealand is about 66 million acres, of which about 18 million acres have been sold or otherwise disposed of, in education and other public reserves, and about 14 millions belong to the aborigines or to the Europeans who have purchased from them, and 34 millions of Crown lands still remain for disposal. Of the latter 15 millions are open grass or fern country, 10 millions forest, and 9 millions of barren mountain-tops, lakes, and worthless country.

Of agricultural land, 1,132,241 acres are, according to the most recent returns, actually under crop, while 159,324 acres more have been broken up and will speedily be brought under cultivation. This is exclusive of grass lands, the extent of which exceeds 5,250,000 acres. Upon the whole, the soil is remarkably productive, although its fertility naturally varies considerably in different localities; and, not having been cropped before the arrival in the islands of the European settlers, it yields good returns without that heavy outlay on manures which has become a necessity in our own land and in other countries similarly circumstanced. The average yield of crops throughout the Colony is as follows:—Wheat, 25·43 bushels per acre; oats, 34·84 bushels per acre; barley, 30·37 bushels per acre; hay, 1·41 tons per acre; potatoes, 5·79 tons per acre.

A very large proportion of the pastoral land of New Zealand has already been utilised in growing wool and mutton; but great as are the numbers of sheep at present reared on the native grasses, there seems little reason to doubt that, with the improvement of the pasturage which will result from the gradual but steady introduction of English grasses, these numbers will, ere long, be largely increased. Both as regards yield of wool and weight of carcass, New Zealand sheep compare favourably with those of other countries in which sheep-breeding forms a leading industry. The following return of the number of live stock of various kinds in the colony in 1884, will furnish an indication of the large share which pastoral pursuits have in promoting its prosperity:—Horses, 162,000; horned cattle, 700,000; sheep, 14,056,266; goats, 11,223; pigs, 200,083; fowls, 1,288,748; geese, 44,708; turkeys, 88,689; ducks, 141,071.

Land may be acquired from the Government by purchase on application at the land office of any of the ten land districts into which the Colony is divided. The first step for the applicant to take is to satisfy himself as to the kind of land which is likely to meet his requirements, and he will then be furnished, at the land office, with information as to the terms upon which such land can be obtained, and the locality in which it is procurable.

Great facilities are given in New Zealand for the acquisition of land by settlers, and everything is done to make the terms of payment as easy as

possible. Its value of course varies greatly according to the quality and its proximity to a town or settled district. Under the Homestead system land can be obtained without payment, but subject to conditions of occupation and improvement. Under the deferred payment system, land can be purchased by means of instalments, subject to similar conditions. Land can also be leased at low rents, with a perpetual right of renewal, and small grazing runs of not exceeding 5,000 acres are let by public auction, the upset rent ranging from 1½*d.* to 1*s.* per acre.

At the time that New Zealand first became known to Europeans through the accounts given of it by Captain Cook, it contained no indigenous animals, with the exception of the native dog and rat and two species of bats. The natives were therefore dependent for food, in a large measure, upon such vegetable products as they could raise by a very rude system of agriculture, and it has been thought that the practice of cannibalism, to which they were at that time much addicted, may have arisen, since a craving for animal food is a natural one, from an instinctive desire to introduce some variety into their ordinary diet. Cook and other navigators, however, left at sundry times a few pigs, which seem to have made themselves perfectly at home in their new quarters; and the advent of European settlers was the means of introducing other kinds of domestic animals, all of which have thriven well and have multiplied exceedingly. At the present time the Colony contains large numbers of all kinds of domestic animals known in Great Britain, and produces far more animal food than is required for home consumption. Indeed, up till quite lately, the difficulty has been how to dispose of much of the meat available; but now that a considerable trade in this commodity has sprung up with Great Britain, in consequence of the discovery of a better method of transporting it in a marketable condition, there is every probability that there will be a brisk and continuous demand. Should the anticipations which are confidently indulged in prove to be well founded, sheep raising in New Zealand will, no doubt, increase enormously, as there is now, and will be for many years to come, much land suitable for the purpose which needs occupation, and which would yield a handsome return for the capital laid out upon it.

The returns given in a previous part of this paper of the exports of wheat and other grain indicate that New Zealand already produces far more of all kinds of cereals than she requires for her own use, and here again her resources are to a large extent undeveloped. With the introduction of more workers and more capital, New Zealand is capable of becoming a great exporting country of all kinds of food stuffs, which cannot be produced by many of the older European nations in quantities sufficient to meet the wants of their ever-increasing populations.

The total revenue of the Colony for the year ending 31st December, 1884, was £3,707,488. In March, 1885, there were nearly 1,500 miles of Government lines of railway in working order, and about 150 more under construction. In addition to these are 91 miles of private lines, and the Colony has the further advantage of an excellent coaching system. The principal ports are connected with each other by regular lines of steamers. The inward entries of shipping during 1884 were 852 vessels, with a burden of nearly 530,000 tons; and the outward entries 872 vessels, with an aggregate burden of 534,000 tons.

It now becomes necessary to refer to the mineral wealth which forms so important a factor in the development of this rapidly rising Colony.

Gold.—Gold was first discovered in 1842, less than three years after the foundation of the Colony, but not practically worked until 1852 in the mines of Coromandel. Auriferous reefs are now extensively worked in the schistose rock of Otago, and they occur at all altitudes from sea-level to a height of 7,400 feet. Alluvial gold is chiefly found in the South Island, in the districts of Otago, Westland, and Nelson, in which mining operations are carried on over an area of almost 20,000 square miles. Many of these alluvial diggings occur in places very inaccessible for water supply, the streams having cut their channels much below the surface of the country; hence an organised system of irrigation is necessary to obtain the required amount of water for gold washing. The number of miners in 1884 was over 12,000, and the yield of gold approached a million sterling in value, and the total export from 1857 was valued at over 41 millions.

Silver.—This metal is found in various localities, but its production is not important.

Copper.—This is now chiefly found at D'Urville Island; at one time it formed an important item of export, but is not at present worked to any extent.

A remarkable description of mixed ore is now being worked at Richmond Hill in Nelson, which contains silver, antimony, zinc, bismuth, and copper. Chrome, lead, zinc, antimony, and manganese, are also found in other parts of the Colony.

Iron.—Iron abounds on the sea coasts, mainly in the black sands, and specimens of almost every description of iron ore have been found in the Colony; hence it would appear that New Zealand has in this mineral a great factor towards an exceptional prosperity only awaiting development.

Coal.—Extensive coal fields exist in New Zealand; the coal mines in the provinces of Auckland, Nelson, and Otago, producing the largest quantities. The total output for the year 1884 was 480,000 tons.

Petroleum.—In 1866 attention was directed to the Colony's resources with respect to petroleum, and some very fine oils were found, which are now being profitably worked.

The other mineral productions of New Zealand worthy of mention are sulphur, graphite, building stone, and marble.

New Zealand has some 133 species of native birds, of which 73 species are land birds. These comprise, among others, several kinds of wild ducks, with pigeons, hawks, parrots and land-rails. Domestic poultry have been introduced with very successful results, and by the agency of the Acclimatisation Societies, of which, in 1882, there were eighteen established in different parts of the Colony, the country is rapidly becoming stocked with hares, pheasants, partridges, grouse, quail, &c. In one respect the persistent efforts of the Acclimatisation Societies have been even too successful, for the rabbit, which even in our own country proves often very troublesome to the farmer, has, since its introduction into New Zealand, increased so prodigiously in numbers as to become a perfect pest. Here, as in Australia, the damage occasioned by this little animal is causing serious disquietude, and although strenuous attempts have been made to extirpate it, up to the present they have had no appreciable result.

The seas about New Zealand abound in all kinds of fish, many of them of great value as articles of food, but the fisheries stand in great need of development. The inland waters contain few kinds of fish which are indigenous, but fairly successful efforts have been made to acclimatise the different members of the *Salmonidæ*, which now exist in considerable numbers, as also do many kinds of the so-called coarse fish, such as perch, tench, carp, &c. Oysters, mussels, crayfish, and other molluscs and crustaceæ of superior quality abound on all parts of the coast.

The indigenous forests of New Zealand, mainly evergreen, abound with valuable timber. Most of it is harder, heavier, and more difficult to work than European and North American timbers. The barks of some of the native trees and plants furnish good materials for dyes; with these the Maoris were well acquainted from the earliest times. Many valuable trees of Europe, America, and Australia, flourish in New Zealand with a remarkable vigour. The useful garden plants which have been introduced produce most satisfactory returns; fruit abounds, oranges, lemons, citrons thrive in the comparatively cool temperature of Wellington; peaches, pears, apricots, figs, and melons grow profusely, and the hop thrives with unexampled luxuriance.

The population at the census of 1881 was 489,933, of which 269,605 were males, and 220,328 females. This total included Chinese, who numbered 5,000, but did not include the native or Maori population, whose numbers are variously estimated at from 30,000 to 40,000. The population, *exclusive* of Maoris, on the 30th September, 1885, has been estimated at 576,234. The number of immigrants in 1884 was 3,888, whose introduction was partly paid for by the Government, and the total excess of immigration over emigration was 9,321 persons. Of those assisted by Government only 105 were subjects of other countries; thus there is a constant replenishment of English-born settlers in the Colony.

The military defence of New Zealand consists of a volunteer force of the respectable figure of 8,000 men, exclusive of over 1,500 cadets. This force comprises all arms of the service—cavalry, infantry, and artillery.

"The social condition of New Zealand is better now than ever it was, although always good, after making an allowance for the native troubles. The moral, religious, educational, philanthropic, and other public institutions in New Zealand are quite equal to those of other colonies, when its age, its size, and its opportunities are taken into account. The people are welded together, north and south, as a solid mass, taking a pride in their country and having no clashing of interests, but looking on what is done for the good of one part of the country as done for the good of the whole. For a blending of the Maori with the European race it would be as vain to look as it would be for the preservation and perpetuation of the Australian aborigines, and all thought of this must therefore be abandoned. In the inevitable process of extinction always going on in the world, English grasses are destroying those of indigenous growth in New Zealand, and none seem to be more aware of this than the Maoris themselves. Hence their frank admission—'As the white man's rat has extirpated our rat, so the European fly is driving our fly away. As foreign clover is killing our ferns, so the Maori will disappear before the white man.'"*

* Allen's 'History of Australia.'

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—New Zealand lies some 1,200 miles to the south-eastward of the Australian continent, and is surrounded by the Pacific Ocean. Its most northern point is at 34° 30′ south latitude, and its southern limit at 47° 30′, so that it extends through thirteen degrees of latitude. Its total length, if a line be taken through the centre of the land, is upwards of 1,100 miles, while its breadth, which varies very much in different parts, probably nowhere exceeds 250 miles.

The Colony consists of two islands of large size, called respectively the North Island and the Middle (or Southern) Island, and a much smaller one, known as Stewart's Island. Other islands in the Pacific, at some distance from the main group, of which the principal are the Chatham Islands and the Auckland Islands, are under the control of the New Zealand Government, and may be included under the general designation of New Zealand.

The North Island is about 550 miles in length, with a breadth, in its widest part, of about 250 miles. Its area is 45,687 square miles, or 29,240,000 acres. The Middle Island has about the same length as the North Island, but it is not nearly so irregular in outline, its breadth varying from 150 to 200 miles. Its area is computed at 57,313 square miles, or 36,680,000 acres. Stewart's Island, 30 miles long and 25 broad, has an area of 1,000 square miles, or 640,000 acres. Taken together, the three principal islands of New Zealand have an area but little inferior to that of the United Kingdom. The coast line of the North and Middle Islands is about 3,000 miles in length.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Of volcanic origin, New Zealand presents natural features of a bold and varied character. Chains of high mountains occupy the greater part of the interior of the larger islands, following, for the most part, the direction of their greatest length, *i.e.*, south-west and north-east. This is especially the case in the Middle Island, in which the loftiest peaks and the most continuous ranges of high ground are found. The higher elevations in both islands occur, for the most part, nearer the western than the eastern coast line. In the North Island, the mountains form detached ranges generally parallel to one another, with longitudinal valleys between them. In the Middle Island, they extend in an almost unbroken chain from the south-western extremity to Cape Campbell, on the eastern shore of Cook's Strait. In the southern and middle portions of this island the mountain chain is not far removed from the western coast line, to which the descent is very steep and rapid; but farther north the highest ground is found nearly in the centre of the island. As a consequence of this formation of the land, the longer rivers of the south of the island are those which flow to the south and south-east; while in the north, nearly the same area is drained by the rivers of the west coast as by those which have their outlet on the opposite side of the island.

Upon their eastern side, the mountains of the South Island form numerous spurs which spread over great part of the interior, and descend, by successive terraces, towards the eastern coast. In both the North and

the Middle Islands are well-watered plains of great extent, well suited for agricultural and pastoral purposes.

From its insular position and its configuration, New Zealand enjoys an entire immunity from those droughts which are often attended with such disastrous effects in Australia. Indeed its average rainfall probably exceeds that of our own country.

The lakes and rivers of New Zealand are very numerous, but though many of the latter are of considerable length, few of them are navigable for more than a short portion of their course. Most of the rivers of the South Island are subject to sudden floods, and at such times they become, from the rapidity of the current, quite impassable. These rivers have, however, bridges at the points where railways and main roads cross their streams.

ISLANDS.—Mention has already been made of the Chatham and the Auckland Islands as being politically dependent upon New Zealand. These, which are of inconsiderable extent, are situated respectively 360 miles to the eastward, and 180 miles to the southward of New Zealand, and, with the Antipodes, 475 miles from Stewart's Island, and some smaller islands form the only outlying dependencies of the Colony. Other islands belonging to New Zealand and immediately adjacent to it are:—off the North Island, Great and Little Barrier Islands, Matakana, Kawau, Waiheke, Poma, Great Mercury, Mayor Island, Motiti, White Island, Portland Isle, Mana and Kapiti; off the South Island, D'Urville Island, Alapawa, Ruapuke, Solander Island and Resolution Island.

CAPES.—The principal headlands are North Cape, Cape Maria Van Diemen, Cape Brett, Cape Colville, East Cape, Cape Kidnappers, Cape Turnagain, Cape Palliser, Cape Terawiti, Cape Egmont, Albatross Point, and Reef Point, in the North Island; Cape Farewell, Cape Jackson, Cape Campbell, Cape Saunders, The Bluff, Cape Providence, Cascade Point, Cape Foulwind and Taura-te-weka Point, in the Middle Island; and South West Cape, at the southern extremity of Stewart's Island.

BAYS AND HARBOURS.—The coasts of New Zealand abound in inlets, many of which form excellent harbours. The principal of these are the Bay of Islands, Hauraki Gulf, Tauranga Bay, the Bay of Plenty, Poverty Bay, and Hawke Bay, on the east side of the North Island; Ahipara Bay, Hokianga Harbour, Kaipara Harbour, Manukau Harbour, Whangaroa Harbour, Aotea Harbour, and Kawhia Harbour, on the west coast; and Palliser Bay and Port Nicholson, on the south coast. In the Middle Island, Golden or Massacre Bay, and Tasman Bay, in the north; Queen Charlotte Sound and Cloudy Bay, on the north-east; Pegasus Bay, Port Lyttelton, Akaroa Harbour, Port Chalmers, Molyneux Bay, and Bluff Harbour, on the east coast; and Chalky Inlet, Dusky Bay, Doubtful Inlet, Milford and other Sounds, on the west coast, are the most important inlets. In Stewart's Island are Port Pegasus on the south, and Paterson Inlet on the east.

STRAITS.—Cook Strait, between the North Island and the Middle Island; Foveaux Strait, dividing the Middle Island from Stewart's Island; Tamaki Strait, between Waiheke Island and the Mainland; Coromandel Channel, between Great Barrier Island and the northern extremity of Coromandel Peninsula; and French Pass, between D'Urville Island and the north coast of the Middle Island.

MOUNTAINS.—In the North Island are the Coromandel Range, the Pakaroa Range, and the Wairoa Range, in the province of Auckland; and the Ruahine Range, 80 miles in length, and the Tararua Range, in the province of Wellington. There are also in this island several isolated mountains, either active or extinct volcanoes. The principal of these are Tongariro (6,500 feet high), which was in active eruption so recently as the year 1883; Ruapehu (9,195 feet); and Mount Egmont (8,300 feet). This last-mentioned mountain, which is situated in the province of Taranaki, on the sea coast, is strikingly beautiful in its outline, rising in a perfect tone from a base 30 miles in diameter. Its summit is above the line of perpetual snow. The Middle Island is traversed from north to south by an immense range called the Southern Alps, which contains the highest mountains in the Colony. The principal peaks are Mount Cook, in the province of Canterbury, 12,349 feet high, and Mount Hochstetter, estimated at 11,200 feet; but there are numerous other summits above the snow line. Ranges of mountains of considerable altitude are found throughout the province of Otago, in the southern portion of this island. The most important of these are the Dunstan, Kakanui, Hawkdun, Almbrella, and Eyre Ranges. The highest points of these ranges are Mount Earnslaw, at the head of Lake Wakatipu (9,165 feet), Mount Tutoko, near Martin's Bay (8,000 feet); Double Cone (7,688 feet), and Mount St. Bathan's (6,600 feet). In Stewart's Island the highest peak is Mount Anglem, which attains an elevation of 3,200 feet.

PLAINS.—The most extensive are the Canterbury Plains, which spread from the sea coast at Banks Peninsula to the foot of the Southern Alps; other plains are the Waikato, Waimea, at the head of Tasman Bay, Wairau, Awatere, Hurunui, Karamea, Manuherikia, and the Clutha plains.

LAKES.—The largest lake in New Zealand is Lake Taupo, in the district of Auckland, which is 20 miles in width, and has an area of 200 square miles. Other lakes in the North Island are Tarawera, Rotorua, Rotoiti, and Rotomahana, south of the Bay of Plenty. The largest lake in the Middle Island is Te Anau, with an area of 132 square miles. Other considerable sheets of water are Lakes Coleridge and Tekapo, in the province of Canterbury; Lakes Manipori, Wanaka, McKerrow, and Wakatipu, in the province of Otago; and Lake Brunner, in the province of Westland. Lake Ellesmere, in the province of Canterbury, has direct communication with the sea, and is only separated from it by an extremely narrow line of coast.

RIVERS.—In the North Island the principal rivers are the Waikato, rising near Lake Taupo, and entering the sea, after a course of 170 miles, on the west coast to the south of Manukau Harbour; the Thames, which has a northerly course and flows into the Gulf of Hauraki; the Wairoa North, in the Auckland Peninsula, which has its outlet in Kaipara Harbour; the Wanganui, about 120 miles in length, emptying itself into the South Taranaki Bight; and the Hutt, flowing into Port Nicholson. The Molyneux or Clutha, which receives several tributaries, and is fed by the waters of Lakes Hawea, Wanaka, and Wakatipu, is the largest river in the Middle Island, and indeed in New Zealand. Its course is almost entirely in the province of Otago, through which it flows in a southerly direction to Molyneux Bay. Other rivers of the Middle Island are the Avon, on which Christchurch, the capital of the province of Canter-

bury, is situated; the Waimakariri, entering the sea at Kaiapoi; the Mataura, flowing south, through Southland, into Toetoe Bay, in Foveaux Strait; the Waitaki, which enters the sea at the southern end of the range of coast known as the Canterbury Bight; the Teremakau, on the west coast between Hokitika and Greymouth, the Buller, and the Grey River.

DIVISIONS, TOWNS, &C.—New Zealand is divided into 9 provincial districts, 4 in the North Island, and 5 in the Middle Island. These are again divided into 63 counties, of which 32 are in the North Island, 30 in the Middle Island, and 1 in Stewart's Island.

The names of the districts, with the principal towns in each, are as follows:—

NORTH ISLAND.

Districts.	Towns.
Wellington . .	Wellington (the Capital of the Colony and the seat of Government) and Wanganui.
Auckland . .	Auckland
Hawke Bay . .	Napier
Taranaki . .	New Plymouth

MIDDLE ISLAND.

Districts.	Towns.
Nelson . . .	Nelson, Greymouth
Marlborough .	Blenheim
Canterbury . .	Christchurch, Port Lyttelton, Timaru
Westland . .	Hokitika
Otago . . .	Dunedin, Invercargill, Oamaru

FIJI.

GOVERNOR,
JOHN BATES THURSTON, C.M.G. (Acting).

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
DR. WILLIAM McGREGOR, C.M.G. (Acting).

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. FIELDING CLARKE.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
H. E. BERKELEY (Acting).

RECEIVER-GENERAL,
H. G. C. EMBERSON.

FIJI.

THIS new Colony consists of an archipelago of two large islands, respectively of 4,112 and 2,432 square miles, and 200 smaller ones, some of which are mere coral islets crowned with their single clumps of cocoanut trees, situated about midway between Tonga (or Friendly Islands), and the French penal settlement in New Caledonia. About eighty of the islands are inhabited. In addition to the Fiji group proper, the island of Rotumah and all islets and rocks lying between the 12th and 15th degrees of south latitude and 175 and 180 degrees of east longitude, have been, on petition of the chiefs of the island, included in the boundaries of the colony by Letters Patent dated December 17, 1880. The scenery of Fiji presents many remarkable and attractive features, some of the islands showing volcanic and others coralline formation. The high peaks and needles on the large islands are mostly basaltic. The landscape and the geological character of the principal islands vary, the characteristics being level grounds edged by sandstone cliffs 500 feet high, mountains often attaining a height of 5,000 feet, narrow gorges beyond which rise hills, of which the wooded tops contrast finely with the bare rocks forming a foreground at their base. There are indications of craters, but no lava in a stream having been found, the construction of the group, assuming it to have been first volcanic and then coralline, points to a great antiquity. Not infrequent but slight earthquakes still show the continuance of volcano action. Mr. Alfred St. Johnston, an authority on the South Pacific islands, remarks that "most of the Fiji islands are green, pleasant-looking and mountainous, consequently their general appearance from the sea is not so distinctly tropical as the low lying cocoa-palm-covered coral islands; but for all that they are very beautiful, particularly Ovalau, the island on which the former capital Levuka is situated. It is one of the smaller islands of Fiji, being only about 28 miles in circumference, but it is very mountainous and in places precipitous, and the great grey summits of the topmost crags are often veiled with clouds. All the hills and valleys are covered with luxuriant green and the shore, as almost everywhere in the tropics, is fringed with a deep grove of palms."

It is not possible to present any facts with regard to the history of these islands or of their inhabitants except those of quite modern times. The natives have no traditions which would lead to the belief that they have taken possession of the Archipelago during any recent period, nor is there any hint or record which gives a clue to their arrival in these islands; it seems to follow therefore that they have occupied them from ages now remote. They are an interesting people to the anthropologist, as they seem to combine the types of the Asiatic and African races in a

manner which leaves little doubt, more especially when accompanied by the unerring evidence of language, that a union of both races has taken place. They are decidedly an inferior race to the Tongans or the Samoans, and their woolly and frizzy hair, flat and broad noses and somewhat protruding lips point unmistakably to the infusion of African blood. They are usually of a dark copper colour, muscular and well built. They are not fond of work, and it requires a good deal of tact to get them to act as labourers on the various plantations which are now springing up. The Fijian is said "to work by fits and starts, and either overdoes or does not do enough; constant daily labour is what he does not like. On the other hand, he is not an habitual idler, and he who does not attend to the affairs of his family and those of his tribe has not much respect shown him by his fellow-townsmen." Many remarkable superstitions are to some extent prevalent, the ancient priestly influence still having force. One of the most remarkable is the system of *tabu* which, extending throughout all Polynesia, is still an influence in Fiji. Mr. St. Johnston describes it as a curious system of prohibition—as we may assume from the word itself—put upon certain actions and things. "This thou mayest not do," "That thou must not touch," imposed by the chiefs. It is implicitly obeyed by the lower classes, although it is very frequently placed on things that are almost necessaries of life. One frequently sees the sign of *tabu* upon cocoa-palms and the *taro* plantations. There are various manners of removing *tabu*, all of which can only be done by a chief. The warlike character of the Fijians did not exist in Captain Cook's time, but is an outcome of their intercourse with the Tongans, aggression having made them warlike. Cannibalism was the common custom of the islands, but has now ceased.

The honour of the discovery of these islands must be awarded, like many others, to the renowned Netherlands navigator Tasman, who sailed among the group, touching at various places, in the reign of Charles I., or, more exactly, in March, 1643. Tasman named the group "Prins Willhems Eylanden." Nothing more appears to have been known of them till Cook's memorable voyage, when he skirted the eastward portion of the archipelago, touching at and naming Turtle Island (Vatoa). Captain Bligh passed them in the *Bounty* in 1789, and again three years later in the *Providence*. An attempt was made to land missionaries in 1797, but without success. About the year 1806 Fiji began to be regularly visited by traders for bêche-de-mer to gratify Chinese epicures, and for sandal-wood to burn before Chinese idols. The next we hear of Fiji was in the early years of the present century, when some convicts managed to escape from the penal settlement at New South Wales and to effect a landing in many of the islands, offering their assistance in the quarrels of the chieftains, and receiving in return almost whatever they exacted, and to such an extent as to make them virtually rulers of the group. Some of these desperadoes were killed in fight or otherwise, and eaten by the natives, the last one surviving thirty years after their escape, was a Patrick Connor, whose ultimate fate is not recorded.

A noteworthy incident of the year 1835 was the landing of the missionaries, and the result of the labours of these pioneers of civilization has been, it is said, the conversion of six-sevenths of the islanders to Christianity. From that period may be said to begin the reliable history of the civilized portion of the group.

In 1859 King Thakombau offered the sovereignty of the islands, under certain conditions, to Queen Victoria; but, acting on the advice of the Home Government, based on the report of Colonel (now Lieut.-Gen.) Smythe, R.A., who had been sent out to investigate the case, Her Majesty declined in 1862 to accept it.

"About that time (1862) the demand for cotton, owing to the American Civil War, led to an influx of Europeans into Fiji for the purpose of cotton cultivation. In June, 1871, certain Englishmen set up a Fijian Government, with the principal chief, Thakombau, as king. This government received the adherence of the Europeans, who persuaded the other chiefs to acquiesce in the supremacy thus claimed for Thakombau. A constitution was agreed upon, and a parliament elected. The parliament and the government before long drifted into attitudes of mutual hostility, and the ministry latterly governed without the aid of the parliament, and in a manner at variance with the terms of the constitution." Riots were common, and King Thakombau suffered so much annoyance from the unruly white men who came to the islands, that with his own free will he resolved again to press the acceptance of this valuable archipelago on the English Crown, saying that "if things remained as they were, Fiji would be like a piece of drift wood on the sea, to be picked up by the first passer-by." As an emblem of the new order of things, the King sent to Her Majesty his favourite war club covered with emblems of peace, and this formidable weapon at once symbolical of the ancient rule and of the savage nature of its stalwart master, reached the Queen, profusely adorned with silver ornaments, the handle entwined with fern leaves and silver doves, and the top surmounted by a massive crown. "The question of annexing Fiji to Great Britain had been agitated both in Australia and England since 1869 on many grounds, both of local expediency and Imperial obligation; and in August, 1873, the Earl of Kimberley commissioned Commodore Goodenough, commanding the squadron on the station, and Mr. E. L. Layard, Her Majesty's Consul in Fiji, to investigate the facts of the case on the spot, and report as to the best course to be adopted in the matter. These Commissioners, on the 21st of March, 1874, reported an offer of the cession of the sovereignty of the islands from the chiefs, with the assent of the Europeans, but on certain terms, which were not acceptable to Her Majesty's Government, and Sir Hercules Robinson, the Governor of New South Wales, was despatched to Fiji in September 1874, to negotiate. This mission was completely successful, and the sovereignty of the islands was ceded to Her Majesty by Thakombau, Maafu, and the other principal chiefs, in a deed of cession dated the 10th day of October, 1874; the form of government, the land question, and the various pecuniary questions then pending being virtually left to the discretion of Her Majesty. A charter was shortly afterwards issued by Her Majesty, erecting the islands into a separate colony, and providing for their government."* Mr. John Bates Thurston, C.M.G., is now (April 1886) administering the government of the Colony.

It is interesting to learn that, with the advent of a settled government, a good deal of material prosperity has been brought to the islands, some of the more important items of which are the enormous increase in

* 'Colonial Office List,' 1886.

the sugar manufacture, the construction of roads and tramways, the establishment of steam communication, and the settlement of land titles. Fiji, we are told, needs but an adequate supply of labourers, cultivators with means, and manufacturers with capital to enable it to develop its stores of wealth, and that the necessary capital is now gradually forthcoming.

The climate of Fiji is remarkably temperate considering the nearness of the islands to the Equator. This is partly owing to the cool sea-breezes which temper the fierce heat of the tropical sun and carry off the malaria arising from the luxurious and dank vegetation which exists in the lowland districts of the larger islands. The year may be divided, as in most tropical countries, into the dry and rainy seasons; the former lasting from May to October, and the latter from October to May. The mean temperature of the islands is about 80°, and the extremes of temperature are 60° and 122°, the latter being the highest heat ever recorded in the sun. The hurricane season occurs between Christmas and Easter, but violent storms have not been so frequent of late years, the latest occurring in 1879. Careful observations are taken at Suva at the official meteorological station, and published for the benefit of the public.

Fiji is a Crown colony; the seat of government is at Suva, situated at the south-east of the principal island (Viti Levu). Formerly it was at Levuka, a town of the island Ovalau, an island off the east coast of Viti Levu. The Government is administered by a Governor and Executive Council.

There is a Legislative Council with the Governor as President and the Chief Justice and five other heads of departments as official members, and six other members, not members of the Government, nominated by the Governor and appointed by the Queen for life, who are called unofficial members.

Acts of the Imperial Parliament are in full force unless superseded by an Act of the Colony. An important innovation took place a few years ago, namely, the abolition of trial by jury, all cases which formerly required a jury being now summarily disposed of by the judge with the aid of two assessors. The natives are admitted as far as possible to posts under Government whenever they are qualified, twelve of their chiefs being salaried officials, and twenty-six magistrates are selected also from among their number. Their customs with regard to social life and village communities are duly respected, and the management of them mainly left in their own hands. An annual meeting takes place of the chiefs and representatives of each province; the sanction of the Legislative Council is, however, necessary before the regulations recommended at these meetings acquire the force of law.

By far the most important religious body in Fiji are the Wesleyans, to the missionaries of which sect is almost entirely due the honour of having been the means of converting the islanders to Christianity. The effect of the teaching of the missionaries on the moral character of the natives is said to be very marked, and there can be little doubt that it has effected a social revolution in the islands as great as any that has occurred in modern times. No complete census of the other denominations is obtainable, but the Wesleyan body return the number of their chapels at 1,253, with an attendance of 104,866, their Sunday-schools numbering over 1,500, with nearly 42,000 scholars.

The Church of England has not hitherto been very active in this

Colony, but is now making up for its laxity in this respect. There are only two clergymen in Fiji, but liberal offers have been made by a wealthy Australian to defray the cost of founding a bishopric.

The Roman Catholics are energetic, and their mission or Prefecture Apostolique has been for years past at work; but, owing to the wide difference between its tenets and those of the majority of the islanders, it does not make much progress. The labours of the early Christian workers in these islands can hardly be praised too strongly. "They fought against and conquered the deepest-seated habits and customs of a savage people, and made the greater part of a large and brutal population peaceful and civilised. The story of how the wives of two of the missionaries when their husbands were absent, bearing their very lives in their hands, forced an entrance into the house of an unfriendly chief, and, at the utmost risk of their own, saved the lives of several out of fourteen women who were being slaughtered for the oven, makes one's heart beat quicker even on the mere recital of the heroic deed." *

The educational wants of the Colony have been well provided for by the establishment of two common schools in Suva and Levuka, and also a week-day school for European children at Nausori.

For the natives the Wesleyan Mission have established day schools at which some 42,000 children are being instructed. There is also a native industrial school, educating some 100 boys under European supervision. The boys are instructed in agricultural and pastoral pursuits, in carpenters' work, and boat-building.

The trade of Fiji has increased very considerably since the annexation. The total trade of the year 1876 was only £198,264 in value, but in 1880 it had increased to £415,000, and in 1884 to £780,000, the last-named amount, however, showing a slight falling off from the previous year. The imports, which greatly exceed the exports, are principally manufactured goods, beer, spirits, meat, grocery wares, books, timber and machinery. The chief exports are sugar, cocoa-nuts, copra, fruit, cotton, molasses, pea-nuts, maize, coffee, curiosities, fibre, &c. The first-named is now at the head of the list, and the trade is rapidly expanding; for whereas in 1875 only 153 tons were sent out of the country, the quantity in 1880 was 593 tons, and in 1884, 8,728 tons. Cocoa-nuts stand second on the list, and from the large area now planted with the trees it is probable that the export will within the next few years be materially increased. Fruit is sent principally to Sydney, but Melbourne and other Australian towns are beginning to take it in quantity. Cotton exports are unfortunately decreasing, owing to the low prices obtained. Maize is raised in great quantities, but the exports nevertheless are decreasing, the reason being that much more of it is consumed at home, and a good deal of land which was formerly sown with it is now planted with sugar-cane. Coffee exports rapidly increased up to 1883, but have since then been falling off.

The industry of the islands is not entirely confined to the plantations, since native manufactures are numerous and by no means contemptible. Several useful and ornamental productions in the native clays are worthy of note. Their artistic merit is probably considerable, as the potters, who are chiefly women, use as their models flowers and leaves and birds. The

* 'Camping among Cannibals,' by Alfred St. Johnston. Macmillan.

tariff is on the lines of that of New South Wales, resembling generally that of the Australian Colonies.

Land in Fiji is Crown property, the Act of cession vesting all rights therein in the Government. A land commission was appointed to deal with grants already made before the annexation by the chiefs to the various European and American settlers. The majority were granted, but 361 were disallowed—140 made to German subjects among the number. These rejected claims led to a good deal of correspondence between England and Germany, the result being that the matter was referred to two arbitrators in May last. Only four claimants, however, appeared, and they were awarded a little over ten thousand pounds, and the dispute is now settled.

The soil of Fiji varies considerably in different parts, but is suitable for nearly all kinds of tropical productions, as well as for some of those of the temperate zones; there is, however, hardly any land in the Colony so poor that it will not produce some useful crop, and none so dry that grass will not grow for an average of nine months in the year. The swampy lands are well suited for rice, and the rich virgin soils of many parts of the Colony grow sugar, coffee, cotton, and various kinds of tropical fruits to great perfection, and have been known to produce crops for a number of years together without manure, and apparently without lessening the fertility of the soil. The cocoa-nut palm thrives well on the sea coast, and is being still more extensively planted; the produce is said to constitute a most remunerative crop. Coffee is receiving a good deal of attention, yielding from 4 to 5 cwts. an acre; and arrowroot is eminently well suited to the climate. Cotton is not so much grown as formerly, sugar being found to be more profitable. Maize is the staple corn crop, while tea is being successfully cultivated and promises well for the future.

The fruit of these islands is essentially tropical; bananas and pine-apples abound everywhere, and the market for them in Australia and New Zealand is practically unlimited; water-melons thrive in every direction, as do also several varieties of the mulberry, which seems to suggest what an undeveloped source of wealth may exist in connection with the silkworm. The climate is not favourable to the cultivation of the grape-vine, and is too hot for our common English fruits.

The forests of Fiji contain many valuable timber trees, perhaps the most durable being the *vesi*. Large trees of it are now scarce, owing to its having been so extensively used in making the large canoes for which the Fijians were famous. That eminent authority, Mr. Horne, in his 'Year in Fiji,' gives it as his opinion that, in addition to its own indigenous forest products, there cannot be a doubt that the soil and climate of these islands will greatly favour the growth and bring to perfection such products of other tropical countries as teak, ebony, satin-wood, logwood, mahogany, the South American india-rubber trees, the gutta-percha trees, &c. Nutmegs, cloves, cinnamon, camphor, allspice, &c., might be grown in the forests as forest produce; when these are grown in a semi-wild state they are highly remunerative.

The live stock of the Colony is not important. Most of the domestic animals have been imported, horses, horned cattle, sheep, angora goats, and pigs. Sheep-rearing appears to be successful in some districts, but is not likely to grow to any considerable industry; and cattle, goats, and pigs do

well in almost every part of Fiji. Bees have been introduced, but it is said that the flora of the Colony is not in all places suitable for their sustenance. This defect, however, could easily be remedied. The live stock returns for 31st December, 1884, are—horses, 1,000, cattle, 6,000, and the same number of sheep, these returns evidently being only approximate.

The food resources are not sufficient for the Colony, almost all the European food supplies having to be imported, amongst which may be mentioned preserved meat, butter and cheese, grocery, beer, wines and spirits. Acclimatisation has been practised to a limited extent, to remedy the defective fauna of Fiji, which has hardly any animals indigenous to it, but the practice has not gone beyond that of the domestic animals and a few birds.

The Colony possesses great facilities for navigation, but does not own any vessels of large size, the greater part of the carrying trade being in the hands of the English; the Germans have a small trade also, as well as the Americans and Norwegians. The revenue of the Colony is mainly derived from customs dues, and native taxes, the latter payable in kind; land sales, wharfage and shipping dues, and the postal services.

The minerals of Fiji are not abundant, with the exception of iron ore, though there are indications that other metals exist, more particularly gold and copper. The regulation declaring all minerals Crown property, however, damps the energy of private prospectors.

The population of Fiji is very mixed, consisting as it does of the white settlers, the Aborigines, the Polynesian Labourers, and Coolies imported for plantation work, and a few half-castes. From an estimate framed in the Colonial Registrar General's office, the population on 31st December, 1884, was set down as follows :—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	2,586	927	3,513
Fijians	60,802	54,089	114,891
Asiatics	—	—	2,409
Polynesian Labourers .	4,841	809	5,650
Half Castes	399	392	791
Others	114	76	190
	,,	,,	127,444

This group of islands suffered an awful visitation a few years ago, when 40,000 of the natives, nearly one-third of the whole population of the group, were carried off by an epidemic of measles. It is somewhat remarkable that a disease which is not regarded with much apprehension in this country should assume so virulent a form in Fiji.

The country is remarkably free from zymotic and enteric diseases, and is on the whole not only a most beautiful but also a healthful residence for Europeans. The progress of the Colony has been satisfactory, every year showing a large increase in the revenue and in the amount of exports and imports. It has been well said of these islands that "their geographical position, their fine harbours, and the advantages which their occupation

affords for preventing and punishing the outrages which have too frequently been practised against the Polynesian islanders, render the inclusion of Fiji within the British dominions an important and fortunate event."

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—The Colony of Fiji consists of an archipelago in the Pacific Ocean, comprising about 200 islands, two of which are of considerable size, while the others are of much smaller dimensions, some of them being in fact mere islets. The entire archipelago lies between the parallels of 15° and 22° south latitude, and the meridians of 177° west and 175° east longitude, and covers an ocean area of some 200 miles from north to south, and 300 miles from east to west. The total area of the islands is 4,751,000 of statute acres. About 80 of them are inhabited.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The islands of the Fijian Archipelago are of two kinds, essentially distinct in their characters—volcanic and coral. The volcanic islands, which are all more or less mountainous, contain among them the largest members of the group, including those known as Viti Levu (big Fiji), and Vanua Levu (big land).

Viti Levu (or Great Fiji) is about 90 miles long by 50 broad, with an area of 4,110 square miles. It contains some of the highest mountains of the group, with peaks which attain an elevation of from 4,000 to 5,000 feet, and it is well watered.

Vanua Levu (or Great Land), the island next in size to Viti Levu, is about 95 miles long, with an average width of 25 miles; its area is about 2,500 square miles. It has, at its eastern extremity, a deep indentation, called Nateva Bay, about 40 miles in length, the head of which is only 7 miles distant from an inlet known as Savu-Savu Bay, at the opposite side of the island, which is an excellent harbour. Vanua Levu, which, like the principal island, is mountainous, contains extensive forests of durable woods.

Taviuni, to the eastward of the last-mentioned island, from which it is separated by Somo-Somo Passage, is 30 miles long by 7 miles wide, with an area of 217 square miles. It possesses a very fertile soil. A line of hills, in some places more than 4,000 feet above the sea-level, extends throughout the whole length of the centre of the island.

Kandavu, the fourth largest island in the group, lies to the southward of Viti Levu, and is divided from it by the Kandavu Passage. It has a length of upwards of 26 miles and a breadth varying from 4 to 8 miles, its area being about 124 square miles. Like the islands previously mentioned, it is somewhat mountainous, and it abounds in timber of the finest quality.

Other islands of the group, of smaller size, are Koro, Angau, Moala, Rambi, Kamia, Vanua, Balavu, Vatu Lele, and Ovalau, which last contains Levuka, the former capital of Fiji, and is a most lovely island.

Fiji and its neighbourhood so abounds with shore reefs, sea or barrier reefs, beds, patches or knolls of reefs, with sunken rocks and sandbanks, as to make it an ocean labyrinth of unusual intricacy.

RIVERS.—The river system of Fiji is remarkable, and perhaps no other group of islands of similar extent possesses so many and compatatively important rivers. They are subject to sudden and heavy mountain floods, and render wondrously fertile the rich alluvial plains which skirt the foot of the mountains and fringe the numerous bays which indent the coasts. The Rewa, in Viti Levu, is the largest river of Fiji, and the most important, in that it is navigable for vessels of light draught for fully 40 miles from its mouth. At 25 miles inland it still has a breadth of at least 200 yards. It has as its tributaries several streams of considerable size, the principal being the Waimanu, the Waidina, and the Waimala. Other rivers in this island are the Navua, Wai Delice, Sigatoka, Nadi and Ba; and in Vanua Levu are the Dreketi, the Lambasa, the Wailevu and the Wainunu.

TOWNS.—The principal towns are Suva, the present, and Levuka, the former, capital. Suva, which was selected for the capital in 1880 by a Commission specially appointed for the purpose, is situated on the south coast of Viti Levu, and has an excellent harbour. Levuka, which also possesses a good harbour, is on the east coast of Ovalau, an island some 12 or 14 miles to the eastward of Viti Levu.

WESTERN PACIFIC.

THE following particulars respecting the functions of Her Majesty's Commissioner for the Western Pacific are extracted from the Colonial Office List:

"The office of High Commissioner, in, over, and for the Western Pacific Islands, was created by an Order in Council of 1877 for the purpose of better carrying out the provisions of the Pacific Islanders' Protection Acts, 1872 and 1875, and to provide a civil court for the settlement of disputes between British subjects living in these islands.

"The jurisdiction of the High Commissioner extends over all islands in the Western Pacific not being within the limits of the colonies of Fiji, Queensland, or New South Wales, and not being within the jurisdiction of any civilised power, and includes that part of New Guinea which is eastward of the 143rd meridian of longitude, New Britain, New Ireland, the Louisade Archipelago, the Solomon Islands, the New Hebrides, the Tongan or Friendly Islands, the Samoan or Navigators' Islands, and the various small groups of Melanesia.

"The Chief Justice of Fiji, and every other judge, for the time being, of the Supreme Court, is, by virtue of his office, a Judicial Commissioner, and where the attendance of the Chief Justice or other Judge of the Supreme Court is impracticable, the High Commissioner may appoint a Judicial Commissioner for particular purposes or for a particular time.

"Deputy Commissioners are appointed by the High Commissioner, on behalf of Her Majesty.

"The High Commissioner's Court consists of the High Commissioner, the Judicial Commissioners, and the Deputy Commissioners, and in it is vested all Her Majesty's civil and criminal jurisdiction exercisable in the Western Pacific Islands.

"The Court of a Judicial Commissioner has powers similar to those of the superior courts of England, and the Deputy Commissioners have jurisdiction, civil and criminal, analagous to that of stipendiary magistrates and judges of County Courts, with certain limited powers in respect of probate and letters of administration.

"With some few exceptions, all decisions of Deputy Commissioners may be appealed against to the Supreme Court of Fiji.

"For the purpose of better carrying out the provisions of the Pacific Islanders' Protection Acts, 1872 and 1875, and in order to deal with cases occurring where there is no resident Deputy Commissioner, certain officers in command of Her Majesty's ships of war on the Australian station have been appointed Deputy Commissioners.

"In addition to other means of preserving order, the High Commissioner has certain special powers for the deportation of persons whose proceedings endanger the peace of the islands.

"The first High Commissioner was the Hon. Sir A. H. Gordon, lately Governor of Fiji, and now Governor of Ceylon."

NEW GUINEA.

NEW GUINEA.

SPECIAL BRITISH COMMISSIONER,
THE HON. JOHN DOUGLAS, C.M.G.

DEPUTY COMMISSIONER,
HUGH ROMILLY.

NEW GUINEA

THIS new possession of the English Crown is the result of the energy, not of the mother country, but of one of the youngest and most energetic of her daughters, the Colony of Queensland. All the island is not occupied by Great Britain; that, however, is not the fault of the Australians, but the consequence of a carefully considered decision of the Home Government. The island may be said to be now in the joint possession of England, Germany, and the Netherlands, the two former nations having about equal areas, and the latter considerably more than either. New Guinea is very irregular in shape, and is divided for political purposes by the 141st meridian of east longitude, all to the westward of this line being in the occupation of the Netherlands, the country to the east of it being again divided by a line sloping from west to east; all to the north of this line is claimed by Germany, all to the south by England. The extent of territory owned by each nation is, England 88,457 square miles, Germany 88,340 square miles, and the Netherlands 147,550 square miles. It will thus be seen that the portion occupied by England is only slightly less than the area of Great Britain (88,774 square miles).

Some of the early Portuguese and Spanish navigators in the sixteenth century, on their passage to and from the Moluccas, are believed to have touched at the island, as well as the Dutch explorers of the following century, but until recent years New Guinea, or Papua, has not attracted much notice; it was known, however, that the Netherlanders had some settlements on its western coast, forming a convenient adjunct to their other settlements in Java and the Moluccas, but it has never been definitely under the sway of any civilised power. It is thought, nevertheless, that England's claim to its sovereignty has been satisfactorily proved, since so long ago as 1793 the island was formally annexed by the East India Company, and a garrison left at Manapvari Island in Geeloink Bay, though little seems to have come of this occupation, and we hear no more of it until the survey of D'Orville in 1827, and the subsequent surveys of Captains Owen Stanley, in the *Rattlesnake*, Yule, Blackwood, Moresby, and others. Some knowledge of the island was brought out by these explorations, but it was not thought worth while to annex it.

The growing importance of Queensland, however, and the attention which that Colony has given to its internal defences, led its legislature seriously to reflect on the consequences of allowing so important an island as New Guinea, separated only from Queensland by a narrow strait, to pass into the hands of the first power which chose to annex it; and the matter was seriously and repeatedly pressed on the attention of the Imperial Government, but without avail. Accordingly, in 1883, the then

Prime Minister of Queensland (Sir Thomas McIlwraith) resolved to act on his own responsibility, and on the 20th of March of that year, the resident magistrate of Thursday Island was directed to proceed to New Guinea and take possession of it in the Queen's name, excepting always whatever portions might be previously annexed by the Netherlands. This was done, and all New Guinea with the adjacent islands between latitude 141° and 155° east formally occupied by that officer. The matter was then reported to the Home Government and its approval asked of the step taken, but strong objections against it were put forward by the Government, and it was not until an Intercolonial Convention met at Sydney to discuss what steps should be taken that a reconsideration was effected. In May, 1884, Lord Derby, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, wrote to the Governor of Queensland agreeing not to annexation, but a protectorate on certain specified conditions, which, having been agreed to, a protectorate over the portion of New Guinea named was formally proclaimed by five ships of war on the 6th of November of that year, and General Scratchley was appointed High Commissioner of the portion referred to. This step caused much discontent in the colonies wherein annexation on a larger scale had been much longed for, and this discontent increased on learning that the German Government had got the start, and had already occupied a very large extent of the island from Huon Gulf westwards.

General Scratchley arrived in the beginning of 1885, but had hardly settled down to the task of organisation when his valuable life was brought to a close. Since his death, the Hon. John Douglas, C.M.G., Resident at Thursday Island, and late Premier of Queensland, has been appointed to the post occupied by Sir Peter Scratchley; and the Queensland Premier, Mr. Griffith, has drawn up a memorandum, for submission to the Governments of the other Colonies, suggesting a scheme for the administration of New Guinea. He proposes that Queensland should administer the territory, guaranteeing £15,000 annually, but receiving proportional contributions from the other Colonies to meet the expenses of the Government of the new territory. The Imperial Government would be asked to make an initial contribution. The sovereignty of the Queen would then be established over the British portion of the island, and an Administration appointed with powers to enact law. Mr. Griffith recommends that native interests should be protected, and that the deportation of natives and the trade in liquor, arms, and ammunition should be placed out of the control of Queensland. The purchase of land, except from the Government, should, he advises, be prohibited. Other matters would be under the direction of the Governor of Queensland and the Executive Council of that Colony.

The climate of New Guinea does not differ essentially from that of the northern portions of Australia. In both, we find a humidity of atmosphere and luxuriance of vegetable growth in strong contrast to the oftentimes sun-scorched deserts of central New Holland. No complete series of meteorological observations have yet been carried out, consequently no official returns on the subject are available. The climate, like that of most other tropical lands, is unfavourable to the health of Europeans in the wet summer season, but in the dry it is not so prejudicial. The sea coast is, however, very unhealthy, due no doubt to the dank and decaying vegetable matter which abounds there. This insanitary condition is, no doubt, capable of being

remedied by drainage, as has been done in some of the West African settlements. The fever which ensues in the rainy season is said not to be formidable if met by proper medical treatment.

With regard to religion and education in this new settlement, little can be said at the present time, as the number of white settlers is extremely limited, and no details of the religion of the aborigines have been furnished to us. Active missionary work, however, is carried on at Port Moresby, and the missionaries carry on with their religious instruction the necessary accompaniments of teaching the natives to read and write.

The sole responsibility for the administration is vested in Her Majesty's Special Commissioner, who is assisted by a Deputy Commissioner and some subordinate officials. The following regulations have been framed by the authorities with regard to the exploration and opening up of the territory, and rules for the conduct of its commerce :—Persons desirous of visiting, exploring, trading, or cutting timber within the limits of the Protectorate must apply for permits by letter to Her Majesty's Special Commissioner. They must specify in detail for what purposes the permit is required, giving the names and addresses of their partners (if any) who may be connected with the undertaking.

Vessels trading to New Guinea will be registered at Port Moresby, which is the sole port of entry for goods, &c., within the limits of the Protectorate. Captains of all ships, on arrival at Port Moresby, are required to produce their manifests and papers for the inspection of the Deputy Commissioner, and no spirituous liquors are to be landed without his written consent. No firearms, gunpowder, dynamite, or any explosives are to be landed under any circumstances. No settlement or acquisition of land is on any account to be permitted. The landing of firearms and ammunition for the personal use of persons possessing permits from Her Majesty's Special Commissioner will be allowed by a written permission from the Deputy Commissioner at Port Moresby. It will be seen from the foregoing rules that, under the present system, no great steps are likely to be made on the one hand in the way of opening up the territory, and that under it the baneful effects of landing indiscriminately firearms, spirits, and a few other articles which have wrought such havoc among the natives of some of our other Colonies are likely to be avoided.

The natives of the whole island at present are estimated to number not more than 2,500,000. They are supposed to be of mixed race, Malay and Papuan, the Malays predominating on the western shores, and the Papuans on the other parts. The latter race is small in stature, and distinguished from the African by the narrowness and lateral compression of the head and the almost disappearance of chin. Their eyes are large, they have thick lips and wide nostrils, with woolly hair, and have scarcely any beard. Their bodies are tatooed and encumbered with ornaments. Both sexes go nearly naked. The various tribes frequently wield hostilities, and some are said to practice cremation. The religion of the natives recognises one Supreme Being, known, however, by a variety of names and dwelling in the mountains. The camphor tree abounds in the forests, the trees generally being of enormous dimensions. The natives cultivate sugar canes, rice, sago, maize, yams, bananas, and cocoa-nuts. The tribes on the coast build their houses on piles, connecting them with bridges constructed above high-water mark; a dwelling of this kind being occupied by several families.

All business between the Papuans and the whites is carried on by a system of barter, ordinary twist tobacco being the most convenient medium, but knives and tomahawks are also in demand. In some parts of the island, however, the exchange medium consists of iron hoop, beads, looking-glasses, as well as the foregoing.

The mammals indigenous to the country resemble those of the neighbouring continent of Australia, but there is in addition the wild pig, which forms the principal food supply of the natives, and tree-climbing kangaroos, which hop about among the large branches of the trees on which they feed. "The birds, like the mammals, are of the Australian type, though it possesses many of which Australia has no representatives. Among these are the celebrated birds of paradise—a distinct family containing more than twenty-five species all confined to this island, and the lands in the immediate vicinity. It is interesting to note that with the exception of one very peculiar species discovered by Mr. Wallace in the Moluccas, all the birds of paradise are found within the 100 fathom line around New Guinea, and therefore on lands which have been probably connected with it within a comparatively recent date. Most of these are found on the mountains of the north-west peninsula, and doubtless more yet remain to be discovered. It will ever remain a mystery why these gorgeously plumaged birds were created alone in this part of the world though, as Mr. Wallace suggests, it is probably connected with the absence of the higher type of mammalia and with the protection afforded by the luxuriant tropical forests. Nowhere in the world are parrots and pigeons so numerous and lovely as in New Guinea. Many of the fruit-doves are strikingly beautiful, and the great crowned pigeons rival in size the largest game birds. Parrots of many species, including the large black and white cockatoo, lories, and little crested green parroquets, no larger than our blue tits, are very abundant, while kingfishers of several species are almost equally numerous, and of brilliant hues. Insects are also very plentiful and adorned with the most gorgeous colours."

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—New Guinea, the most easterly of the group of islands known collectively as the East Indian Islands, lies immediately south of the Equator, its most northerly point being at 0° 19′ south latitude. Its northern and eastern shores are washed by the waters of the Pacific, and the southern and western shores by the Coral Sea, Torres Strait, and that portion of the Indian Ocean which is styled the Arafura Sea. Torres Strait separates it from the Australian Continent, the most northerly point of which—Cape York—is only distant some 90 miles. According to the most recent surveys, the island has an extreme length, from north-west to south-east, of about 1,500 miles, and a breadth varying, in the middle portion, from 200 to 400 miles. Its south-eastern and north-western extremities are long, narrow peninsulas, one of which—the north-western—

* 'The Countries of the world,' by Dr. Robert Browne.

has a very irregular coast line. The total area of New Guinea is computed to be 250,000 square miles, or about one-sixth less than the area of New South Wales.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Until recent years very little was known of New Guinea, and even at this day such explorations as have been made have been limited almost exclusively to the southern coast. To the east of Torres Strait, the coast forms a deep bight, known variously as the Great Bight of New Guinea and the Gulf of Papua, the eastern shores of which are bold and rocky, and are backed by lofty mountains at some distance inland. The western shores of the bight are flat and marshy, covered with thick forests, and intersected by innumerable channels of fresh water, like the delta of a great river. From the Gulf of Papua the coast trends to the south-eastward nearly to the 151st meridian of east longitude, which forms the eastwardly limit of the island. To the west of Torres Strait the coast line takes a north-westerly direction. So far as is at present known, it contains no considerable indentations until the 4th parallel is reached, but from this point numerous inlets follow one another in quick succession on both shores of the north-western peninsula. One of these, called McCluer Inlet, on the western side, penetrates a great distance inland and practically divides the peninsula into two nearly equal parts.

The north coast, which is mountainous, is little known, except for a short distance at the eastern extremity of the island. Formerly New Guinea was supposed to extend some considerable distance further to the eastward than is actually the case, but Captain Moresby, in H.M.S. *Basilisk*, discovered that a large portion of what had been thought to belong to the mainland really formed separate islands. A channel between one of these islands and the mainland, named by him China Strait, allows of the passage between Australian ports and China being shortened by some 300 miles. Besides the regions of high land, which have been stated above to exist on the northern coast and on the shores of the Great Bight, a great range of mountains, called the Charles Louis Mountains, occurs in the north-west, between the 4th and the 5th parallels. The whole country, so far as can be ascertained, is heavily timbered, and spreads here and there into vast alluvial plains, formed, in the course of ages, by the deposits of the great rivers which flow through it.

ISLANDS.—The islands immediately contiguous to the coast of New Guinea, and which, geographically, belong to it, are Moresby and Basilisk Islands, at the south-eastern extremity; Normanby Island and Goodenough Island, off the north-east coast; Rook Island, Long Island, Dampier Island, Vulcan Island, and several smaller ones, on the northern coast; Jobie Island, and several others of considerable size, which have not yet been named, in Geelvink Bay; Way-Giou and Salvatti Island, at the north-western extremity; Frederick Henry Island, on the south coast; Saibai Island, Talbot Island, and some smaller ones, between Australia and New Guinea, at the entrance to the Gulf of Papua; and Kiwai Island, at the mouth of the Fly River, which falls into that gulf.

CAPES.—The principal capes to which have been assigned distinctive names are Cape Kaffoera, Cape Buro, Cape Steenboom, in the westerly portion of the south coast; Cape Valsche, in Frederick Henry Island; Cape Blackwood, Cape Possession, and Cape Suckling, in the Gulf of Papua; Hope Point, Eagle Point, and South Cape, on the south coast of

the south-eastern peninsula; Cape Vogel, Cape Nelson, Cape Sud-Est, Cape Killerton, Caution Point, Cape Longuerne, Parsee Point, on the north coast of the same peninsula; with Cape Oretin, Cape King William, Cape Croiselles, Cape Gourdon, Cape Della Torre, Passir Point, Point Ada, and Point D'Urville, farther to the westward.

MOUNTAINS.—The loftiest known mountains are in the south-eastern peninsula. The principal are Mount Owen Stanley (13,205 feet); Mount Suckling (11,226 feet); Mount Obree (10,246 feet); Mount Yule (10,046 feet); Mount Clarence, Mount Brown, and Mount Trafalgar. On the north coast are the Finisterre Mountains, the Torricelli Mountains, and Mount Jullien; and on the south coast, in the neighbourhood of the north-western peninsula, is a great chain, called the Charles Louis Mountains, which extends through more than 4 degrees of longitude.

BAYS, STRAITS, AND HARBOURS.—The most noteworthy inlets are McCleur Inlet, in the north-western peninsula; Geelvink Bay, a deep indentation on the north-west coast; the Gulf of Papua; with Milne Bay, Goodenough Bay, Collingwood Bay, Dyke Acland Bay, Traitors Bay, Holincote Bay, Huon Gulf, and Astrolabe Bay, on the north-eastern coast.

The principal straits are Dampier Strait, between New Guinea and the Island of Way-Giou: Dourga Strait, and Marianne Strait, which separate Frederick Henry Island from the mainland; China Strait, Goschen Strait, and Ward Hunt Strait, which respectively separate Basilisk Island, Normanby Island, and Goodenough Island from the south-eastern peninsula.

The known harbours of the island, according to the 'Australian Handbook,' are Vailala, at the mouth of the Annie River; Pisi, Alice Meade, Williams River, Macey Lagoon, Coombes River, Hale Sound, Redscar Bay, Port Moresby, Fairfax, Bootless Inlet, Neville, Kerepunu, Macfarlane, Kiakalo Bay, Cheshunt Bay, Sandbank Bay, Cloudy Bay, Baxter Bay, Table Bay, Amazon Bay, Mayri Bay, Port Milport (reported to be one of the finest harbours of the southern hemisphere), Port Glasgow, Orangerie Bay, Argyll Bay, Farm Bay, Suav Bay, Catamaran Bay, and Inverary Bay. On the north-east coast there are very few harbours or rivers.

RIVERS.—The rivers at present known are the Fly, Baxter, Williams, Annie, Coombes, Aroa, Manu Manu, Laroge, Brown, Kemp-Welch, Robinson, Reynolds, Herons and Aird, Katau and Mabidauan.

BRITISH GUIANA

BRITISH GUIANA.

GOVERNOR,
SIR HENRY TURNER IRVING, K.C.M.G.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR AND GOVERNMENT SECRETARY,
CHARLES BRUCE, C.M.G.
Assistant Secretary: GEORGE MELVILLE.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. W. F. HAYNES SMITH, LL.D.

SOLICITOR-GENERAL,
ALFRED V. SMITH (Acting).

AUDITOR-GENERAL,
HON. FRAN. J. VILLIERS, C.M.G.

RECEIVER-GENERAL,
CHARLES P. AUSTIN.

IMMIGRATION AGENT-GENERAL,
HON. H. A. ALEXANDER.

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COLONIAL CIVIL ENGINEER,
W. H. HUTCHENS.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
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PROVOST MARSHAL,
CAPTAIN M. McLEOD.

REGISTRAR,
E. H. G. DALTON.

CHIEF JUSTICE.
SIR DAVID P. CHALMER.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. JOHN TANKERVILLE GOLDNEY.
HON. NICHOLAS ATKINSON (Acting).

THE WEST INDIES, BRITISH GUIANA, BRITISH HONDURAS & BERMUDA.

London, Wm. Clowes & Sons, Ltd.

BRITISH GUIANA.

The Colony of British Guiana in the north-east of South America lies between Venezuela, Brazil, Dutch Guiana, and the Atlantic Ocean. Its seaboard is 280 miles, and its area 76,000 square miles, of which about 83,000 acres are under cultivation. The first Colonists were the Dutch, by whom the Colonies of Berbice, Demerara, and Essequibo were founded. In 1803 they were yielded to the British, in whose hands they have remained. The lands along the coast and river banks are a rich alluvial deposit, composed of strata of surface soil, fine sand, decayed vegetable matter, and clay, resting on a bed of sand, from which drinkable water is obtainable. As these lands lie below high-water mark, the plantations have to be protected by dikes or dams from the sea as well as from the water which accumulates on the level plains in their rear, and their drainage is effected by canals. Trenches provide the means of transporting canes from the fields to the mills, and produce from the factory to the sea.

Iron abounds in the Colony, but is not utilised or exported. Gold exists to some extent, but questions of boundary hinder the prosecution of mining enterprise.

The ocean for some miles from the shore is discoloured by the large amount of earthy matter brought down by the rivers, which are many in number, the largest being the Essequibo, upwards of 620 miles long.

The upper parts of the rivers are obstructed by large formations of granite, &c., which prevent further progress to all vessels except the light corials or boats of the Indians.

At twenty miles from the sea, sand hills of from thirty to 120 feet in height, and detached, groups of hillocks are met with; beyond these the mountain ranges, formed of granite, gneiss, and sandstone commence.

The remarkable mountain Roraima, between 8,000 and 9,000 feet high, is situated about 200 miles from Georgetown.

The climate of British Guiana is more temperate than that of many other countries under similar parallels. The seasons are divided into a wet and two dry seasons, the latter being usually from the middle of February to the end of April, and from the middle of August to the end of November. The average rainfall in Georgetown for the years 1880–5 was 68·63.

The population of British Guiana on the 31st December, 1884, was computed to be 264,361, exclusive of 349 troops in garrison, and 583 seamen in the ports of Georgetown and New Amsterdam; 7,538 Aborigines are included, but it is not practicable to obtain a correct estimate of their number. The inhabitants of British Guiana comprise West Indians chiefly,

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Barbadians, Portuguese, from Madeira, Chinese, East Indians, of whom upwards of 60,000 are resident on the sugar plantations. The Aboriginal Indians, estimated to number 7,656, are divided into several tribes, of which Arawaks, Acawois, Caribs, Waraus, Macoosis, and Arecoonas, are the principal. Some few work upon the timber grants, but the rest are occupied in fishing, hunting, and raising crops of cassava, which, with yams, fish, and game, forms their food

Georgetown, the metropolis and chief port of British Guiana, with a population of 49,211, is situated at the mouth of the Demerara River. It is a picturesque city with wide streets, lined with trees and with canals in their centres, while the houses, which are detached, stand in gardens filled with bright flowers and foliage. The houses are built with native hard wood frames covered and floored with pine lumber imported from the United States and British North America, while the roofs are of either slate or galvanized iron. The principal edifices in Georgetown are the Law Courts, Roman Catholic Cathedral, hospital, public buildings, and market.

The streets of the city and its churches, with many of the private houses, are lighted with gas. Tramways run through some of the principal thoroughfares. There are two clubs. The Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society, which is under the patronage of Her Majesty, possesses a very fair library and a museum, which latter attracts many of the East Indian immigrants.

The Botanical Gardens, a large recreation ground named Longden Park, a racecourse and a spacious cricket ground, are in the immediate vicinity of the city, while a public garden and parade ground exist in its midst.

The "sea wall," a stone work defence against the encroachment of the ocean, forms a most agreeable promenade.

The barracks, which are large and airy, are situated at Eve Leary, fronting the sea.

Fort Frederick William, at the entrance of the Demerara River, is an old-fashioned fortification, on which are mounted a few guns of obsolete pattern, hardly safe for even saluting purposes. The lighthouse, an octagonal tower, 100 feet high, was built in 1829 of brick upon a greenheart timber foundation. Its light, which is bright every alternate minute, is said to have been seen twenty-five miles off.

Georgetown and New Amsterdam in Berbice are the only ports of entry in the Colony. In 1885, 917 vessels, of 314,800 tons, were entered, and 925, with 319,823 tons, cleared at these ports. There is communication by steamers between Georgetown and Berbice, and also with stations on the Demerara, Essequibo, Berbice rivers. A railway opened in 1842, connects Georgetown with Mahaica on the east coast. New Amsterdam on the east bank of the Berbice River was formerly the seat of Government of Berbice. Its population is estimated at 8,124.

The constitution of the Colony is peculiar. The executive power is exercised by the Governor. Legislation is conducted by the Court of Policy, composed of five official and five non-official members, the latter being selected by the court from nominations sent up by the College of Seven Kiezers, or electors, each of whom is chosen by the voters of an electoral division. The Court of Policy, presided over by the Governor, passes all ordinances, save the Annual Tax Ordinance, which is enacted by the combined court. This last mentioned body is composed of the

Governor, members of the Court of Policy, and six financial representatives elected for two years by the votes of their constituencies.

The revenue and expenditure of British Guiana for 1883 and 1884 were as follows:—

	1883.	1884.
Revenue	£478,216 8 1	£460,932 6 6
Expenditure . . .	459,207 9 4	449,785 14 7

The public debt of the Colony on 31st December, 1884, was £200,213 12*s.* 2*d.*

Those products of the Colony now classed as staple products may be briefly enumerated as sugar, molasses, and rum, timber, shingles, and charcoal. Cotton, once an important article of export, has ceased to be cultivated. Some attention is being paid to the resuscitation of the coffee industry, and cocoa is planted on some small estates. There are, however, other productions of the Colony, which only require to be better appreciated, and greater facilities afforded for their being raised to make them valuable articles of export. The timbers and woods of British Guiana are second to none for their utility and beauty. The Colony is rich in gums, oils, and medicinal barks, possessing most useful qualities. Her fibres are also of great and varied use. Balata, superior in some respects to caoutchouc and gutta-percha, only requires to be better known to obtain an increased and regular demand, and so with many others, to which it is hoped the specimens exhibited will attract attention.

The produce exported from British Guiana in 1885 was:

Sugar, hogsheads	106,532
Rum, puncheons	28,353
Molasses, casks	10,349
Timber, cubic feet	387,889
Shingles	3,368,700
Charcoal, barrels	49,190
Cocoa nuts	224,732

The total value of the imports of British Guiana in 1884 was £1,999,448 0*s.* 1*d.*, and the exports £2,322,032 8*s.* 7*d.*

The Colony is divided into eighteen parishes under the charge of clergy of the Church of England or Church of Scotland. There are various other religious bodies.

The Civil Law of the Colony is the Roman-Dutch, modified by Orders in Council and local ordinances. The Criminal Law is the same as that of England; there is, however, no grand jury.

There is an extensive postal service throughout British Guiana, and mails are despatched daily to all the most populous parts. Letters can be sent from Georgetown to Skeldon, 115 miles distant, on the borders of Dutch Guiana, in thirty hours, and to the Pomeroon, on the Venezuelan side of the Colony, in twenty-four hours. In 1879, 851,777 letters, &c., were posted in the Colony for inland transmission or to places abroad. In 1884 the number had increased to 1,079,295.

The deposits in the four savings banks in British Guiana on the 31st December, 1884, were £226,791 9*s.* 8*d.*

Telegraphic communication is established throughout the most inhabited portions of the Colony, and is extensively used. The rate is 6*d.*

for ten words. In 1884 the total number of telegrams despatched by the public was 68,240.

The money order system is largely used, in 1885 nearly £10,000 being received and paid in the Colony.

There is telegraphic communication with England viâ New York.

The steamers of the Royal Mail Steam Company call every fortnight; those of the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique from France, and the West Indian Islands, once a month. The Koninklijke West Indische Maildienst from Havre brings the Dutch and other Mails monthly, while there is frequent communication with the United Kingdom by means of the steamers of the "Direct," "Regular," and other lines, and with the United States by those of the Atlantic and West Indian Steamship Company.

The Militia has not been called out for some years, but its staff and band are maintained out of the Colonial Revenues.

There are two Volunteer Corps in the Colony, one in Georgetown, and one in New Amsterdam, Berbice, each mustering about 100 men. A large Police Force with a very efficient Fire Brigade is maintained.

The Colony at present suffers from the depreciation in price of its principal staple—sugar; but it is rich in other resources. Should the attention of manufacturers and other consumers in the United Kingdom be attracted to the timbers, fibres, oils, and gums, and other valuable products as exhibited by the Colony, industries may be called into existence and encouraged, which will largely contribute to her wealth. Further information as to the history and present position of British Guiana can be obtained from the special handbook and catalogue issued by the Commissioners for the Colony.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—British Guiana extends along the north-eastern coast of South America from the River Corentyn, which separates it from Dutch Guiana, to the southern mouth of the Orinoco, a distance of 300 miles, and it stretches inland upwards of 400 miles. It is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by Dutch Guiana, on the south by Brazil, and on the west by the last-named country and Venezuela. The area of the province is probably about 76,000 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Our knowledge of the country is limited almost entirely to the coast region, on which are most of the plantations. But one important feature is the numerous rivers, some of them of considerable size, which traverse the Colony from south to north, and afford a ready means of communication, by boats, with the interior. Ranges of mountains, most of them of a moderate elevation, run east and west at intervals between the coast and the southern border; in the rivers cataracts occasionally occur, which cause much hindrance to navigation. Of these ranges, that known as the Sierra Pacaraima, to the west of the middle

course of the Essequibo, attains an elevation of 4,000 feet. One of its summits, Roraima, has more than double that altitude.

RIVERS.—The principal are the Amacupa, the Waini, the Cuyoni, the Mazaruni, the Essequibo, the Demerara, the Berbice, and the Corentyn. The longest of these—the Essequibo—has a length of upwards of 620 miles, and, in the wet season, is united, by means of its tributary, the Rupunoony, with the head waters of one of the smaller affluents of the Amazon. About midway in its course it is joined, on the west bank, by the Rupunoony, and lower down, on the same side, by the Siparoony and the Massaroony. The Demerara has a length of 200 miles, the Berbice of 360 miles, and the Corentyn of nearly 500 miles.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—The Colony is divided into three counties, Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice. The principal settlements are on the banks of the Demerara and the Berbice Rivers, and along the portion of the coast which lies between those rivers. Settlements are also rapidly increasing upon the River Corentyn.

The capital is Georgetown (formerly Stabroek), a place of considerable trade, with some 49,000 inhabitants, on the River Demerara, near its mouth. New Amsterdam, near the mouth of the Berbice, has an estimated population of 8,000 or thereabouts.

JAMAICA.

GOVERNOR,
SIR H. W. NORMAN, K.C.B., C.I.E.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
EDWARD NOEL WALKER, C.M.G.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. HARRY HICKS HOCKLING.

DIRECTOR PUBLIC WORKS,
MAJOR-GENERAL J. R. MANN, R.E., C.M.G.

EMIGRATION AGENT IN INDIA,
O. STEWART.

TREASURER,
HENRY WILLIAM LIVINGSTON.

POSTMASTER,
FREDERICK SULLIVAN.

COLLECTOR-GENERAL,
RICHARD GILLARD.

COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS,
CHARLES GOLDIE.

SUPERINTENDENT MEDICAL OFFICER,
C. B. MORSE, C.B., M.D.

PROTECTOR OF IMMIGRANTS,
P. CORK.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
SIR ADAM GIB. ELLIS, KNT.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. C. R. CURRAN.
(And a vacancy.)

AUDITOR-GENERAL,
JOHN C. MACKGLASHAN.

JAMAICA.

THE island of Jamaica was discovered by Columbus in 1494. He had been attracted towards it by reports he had heard in Cuba of its immense wealth in gold and other precious metals. If he eventually failed in finding the inexhaustible supplies of the richest ores, he nevertheless found the island most charming, beautifully wooded, well watered, and abounding in picturesque mountains and fertile valleys. The inhabitants were at first rather warlike, but subsequently they became friendly, and several of them even volunteered to accompany the discoverer back to Spain. The first name bestowed by Columbus on the island was St. Jago, but it soon recovered its native name of *Cha-maika*, vulgarized, Jamaica, which really means "island of springs," which it has retained to this day. Columbus paid it several visits, and passed almost the whole year 1503 on its shores, where his vessels had been driven by storms and stress of weather, and required consequent reparation.

After the death of the discoverer in 1506, his son Diego, who was created viceroy of all the countries discovered by his father, sent out to Jamaica, Juan de Esquiros, the first Spanish governor, who conciliated the natives by his kindness, and the island prospered under his rule. His successors, however, soon managed to exterminate the aborigines, for in little less than a century and a half afterwards there was not a single descendant of them living. The story of the furious and wanton persecution which they endured is one of the most horrible in the dark annals of Spanish misrule. In 1596 an English party took the capital and pillaged it. Forty years later it was visited by a Spanish force from the Windward Islands, and the town of St. Jago was plundered. Under the administration of Cromwell, the whole island was conquered by the English; the number of whites at this time did not exceed 1,560, and the negroes were even less numerous. The Spaniards made a fine resistance, and for a long time our forces were harassed by their incursions. Oliver Cromwell encouraged emigration, both from Great Britain and the other colonies in the West Indies, and from 2,000 to 3,000 persons were engaged by Henry Cromwell in Ireland, and a considerable number embarked from Scotland for the purpose.

Colonel D'Oyley administered the government with great energy. In May, 1658, an attempt was made by the Spaniards to recover the island, but they were speedily repulsed. About this time the settlement became the resort of buccaneers, who spent their immense gains with characteristic extravagance, and greatly enriched the inhabitants. After the restoration of Charles II., Jamaica was the refuge of many Republicans who had distinguished themselves in the civil contest, and one

of the first measures of the restored monarchy was to replace Governor D'Oyley in office, and to authorize the election of a council and assembly of representatives of the people. Thus was first established a form of regular government on the island, which had hitherto been ruled by martial law.

Many men of rank and ability have been sent out as governors to Jamaica. The name of D'Oyley is still favourably remembered. He had singular talent, both as administrator and as a military officer of high rank. The defence of Jamaica under his *régime* is a noteworthy event in colonial history, as are also equally remarkable the gallant siege and battle of Rio Nuevo. Lord Windsor succeeded D'Oyley, and was a clever and sagacious ruler. The next governor in succession, however, Sir Thomas Modiford, was a man of even greater ability, and to him Jamaica owes a tribute of sincere and grateful memory for the practical interest he took in the administration of public affairs, and the impulse he gave to agriculture. In 1673 the first "pot of sugar" was exported to England as a present from General Bannister to Lord Arlington, then Secretary of State. The population had increased to 17,862 in this year. The Duke of Albemarle landed as governor in March, 1687, and brought in his train two remarkable personages, Rev. Father Churchill, a Jesuit missionary, and Dr. Hans Sloane, the naturalist. The first-named gentleman did little or nothing, his religious persuasion being decidedly very distasteful to the exceedingly Protestant spirit of the population; but the second made some remarkable studies when on the island, and on his return to London began to form what has since developed into the British Museum. His Grace of Albemarle died two years later at Port Royal, the victim of an irregular and intemperate life. In 1674 the French from Hayti invaded Jamaica under Du Casse. They were, after considerable difficulty, expelled by the militia, but soon afterwards once more ventured so close to the coast in 1702, that the famous Admiral Benbow, one of England's grandest naval heroes, sailed in quest of their fleet, which he met on 11th July. After a running fight of several days, the French escaped, having, however, wounded mortally the illustrious admiral, whose body was brought back to Jamaica for burial.

Many successive disasters now befell the Colony. A terrific hurricane in 1712 partly destroyed the plantations on the eastern side. Then came a series of earthquakes and frequent rebellions of slaves and outbreaks of epidemics of a serious character. The year 1720 is memorable for the invasion of the Picaroons from Cuba, who burnt villages, plundered country houses, and killed a great number of people, especially slaves. A measure called "the Deficiency Law" was now passed, by which a fine was to be paid by each planter who did not supply a sufficient number of men to assist the defence of the coast. The Duke of Portland arrived in 1722 as Governor. He died five years later, and has left a record of moderation and sagacity frequently irritated by the turbulence of the planters, but never abandoned for a single moment.

The eighteenth century passed more smoothly than its predecessors. The neighbouring Spanish and French colonies had learnt the lesson that it is ever wisest to leave John Bull alone, and ceased to disturb their by no means defenceless neighbours, who, however, frequently attacked them, and without provocation, simply for the sake of plunder. In 1762 an

expedition sailed from Port Royal against Havannah, besieged and captured that beautiful city, and made off with booty to the value of £3,000,000, which was subsequently spent in riotous living in Port Royal. The establishment of a botanical garden in 1773, and of a hospital in Kingston in 1776, are facts which testify that progress in a humanitarian sense was beginning at last to make itself felt in a population which, owing to its peculiar constitution, had hitherto rather neglected works of a benevolent or purely intellectual nature. This same year, 1776, Nelson fitted out in Jamaica an expedition against St. Juan de Nicaragua, which met with indifferent success. It is chiefly remarkable as a link in the history of the island, binding it by the great name of the hero of Trafalgar to the mother country. Passing over the incidents in the career of "Three-fingered Jack," so famous in melodrama, and who in reality was only a vulgar negro bandit, we pause for a moment at the victory of Rodney, which occurred April 12th, 1782. The Admiral thus reported the battle to the Governor of Jamaica.

"After having had a partial engagement with the enemy on the 19th, wherein sixteen of my rear were prevented by calms from joining in the action on the 12th, I had the good fortune to bring them to a general action which lasted from seven o'clock in the morning till half-past six in the evening without intermission. Count de Grasse, with the *Ville de Paris* and four other ships of the line, and one sunk, graced the victory. The remainder of the fleet was so miserably shattered, and their loss of men so very great, from their having their whole army, consisting of 5,500 men, on board the ships of war, that I am convinced it will be almost impossible to put them in a condition for service for some long time to come."

Rodney was raised to the peerage, and his statue by Bacon stands to this day overlooking the harbour of Kingston. The same year Rodney captured another French ship, on board of which were found some cinnamon, mangoe, and other Oriental fruits, seeds of which he presented to Jamaica.

Prince William, Duke of Clarence, visited Jamaica in 1782, and was the first member of the Royal Family who ever landed on its shores. Since then H.R.H. Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, was worthily entertained in 1861, and the two sons of the Prince of Wales in 1880 were *fêted* by the Lieutenant-Governor and the *élite* of the Colony, and most loyally received by the population.

The most remarkable event that has happened in Jamaica during the present century is undoubtedly the emancipation of the slaves in 1833. The news of the passing of the Bill was received by the newly-freed population with every conceivable demonstration of joy, and yet without serious rioting. Of late years steady progress in the right direction has been made, and Jamaica seems likely, at no very distant period, to regain its former prosperity.

The Spanish Missionary Quevera very pithily remarks in his curious work on the 'Early Missions to the New World'—"My countrymen have always had three great objects in view when taking possession of a new country. Firstly, they look for gold; secondly, they scandalise the natives by their immoral conduct; and thirdly, they endeavour to convert them to their religion by tormenting them to death." There were several reasons why Columbus made so great a matter of the

discovery of gold wherever he went. His word, like that of most discoverers, had been more frequently discredited than not. It was therefore absolutely necessary for him to bring back some tangible proofs of the facts he related, and which, as a rule, were treated as fairy tales by his countrymen. The sight of gold, however, usually convinced them of the truth of his assertions. His ships were small, the voyage long, and therefore he could only transport small valuables, and gold, being easily stowed away, was the chief object of his researches. To him, so disinterested was he, it was simply a means of convincing the Europeans that he was no impostor; but his followers looked upon the precious metal with very different eyes. They considered that it meant comfort and luxury in their old age, and a fitting recompense for their many troubles so heroically endured in following "God knows where" a leader who might, as Fray Boyle said, "one day hurl them all over that horrid precipice" which in that age was supposed to end the earth. Christopher Columbus, when in Cuba, was assured that gold existed in abundance in the great Southward Island, but although he remained nearly eighteen months in Jamaica, he does not seem to have discovered any gold or silver mine. Still it must be remembered that one enterprising Cacique of his acquaintance who wished to visit Europe in his company had a head-dress made of plates of beaten gold, and many of the natives, to whom gold was only valuable as a pretty and glittering ornament, also intermingled in their barbaric costumes bits of gold and silver. The first capital of the island, the traces of which still exist, was founded under Diego Columbus's rule, and called "Sevilla Nueva;" but it presently was known as Sevilla del Oro, or Golden Seville, from the amazing quantity of gold ornaments and pieces of gold ore worn by the natives and brought by them to the market. Tradition is silent as to whence they fetched the ore, although the early English settlers used to talk of "the King of Spain's secret gold mine," and the negro tales, the folk lore of the island, are full of allusions to hidden treasures and golden mines. In the 'Notes to Thomas Burton's Diary' (Clarendon State Papers), will be found this curious remark:—"The secret golden mine which hath not yet been opened by the King of Spain or by any other is four miles from Mestan towards the east. It is near the way towards Mellila. The earth is black—rivulets discover the source of the mine." The name of Sevilla has survived, and is now the parish of St. Ann, and a French author tells us, writing in 1660, that "the town of Olistan built by the Spaniards is not far from a bay or river in which the Bluefields River disgorges itself. Bridges has also traced the spot where once stood the town of Millila on the banks of the Martha Brae River, so that we have Sevilla in St. Ann's, Olistan in Bluefield Bay, and Millila on the banks of the Martha Brae." The so-called "secret gold mine" must therefore be somewhere in this region, if it exists at all. The story goes that the Spanish Governor, Don Pedro d'Esquimel, extracted the secret of its existence from an unfortunate Indian chief by the usual means of torture. The wretched man had appeared before His Excellency only too magnificently decorated with golden ornaments, and thereby awakened his appetite for possessing a knowledge as to the spot whence the chief obtained such riches. "Were I to search for the famous secret mine," says Bridges, "I should look for it on the Maxfield estate and in the neighbourhood of Trelawny." This writer furthermore observes, "that the

mountains and rivers of Jamaica contain both gold and silver, and also copper. The Healthshire Hills are said to have furnished the copper which composed the bells of the Abbey Church in St. Jago, and Mr. Beckford obtained some fine samples of gold from the bed of the Rio Minho, whose richness in metallic ore might probably supply its name. That the Spaniards were acquainted with the valuable quality of its sand is proved by the remains of *lavaradores*, which may yet be traced upon Longueville Plantation. The Spaniards did not care much for copper, but whilst looking for gold they accidentally found it, and silver too. Silver they discovered, according to ancient tradition, somewhere up in the Healthshire Hills. Bryan Edwards, in his 'History of the West Indies,' says "that a lead mine was once worked by the English on the Hope Estate in St. Andrews. The chief of this party abandoned it, because he was told that the lead was exhausted. But at the time it was believed that he had enriched himself with a great deal of silver out of it." Such then is the brief history of the more ancient mining operations in Jamaica. The treasure above ground in cane fields and coffee plantations afforded too lucrative and too sure a profit to tempt anybody to seek wealth hidden "in the deep bosom of the earth."

It is positive that gold, silver, platinum, cobalt, copper, tin, and lead mines abound all over this island, and that at least some of the gold mines were well known to the Spaniards; for independently of the facts already mentioned, when Mr. Binger tried his mining schemes some forty years ago and made some considerable experiments in the mountains near Port Royal, he came across several evidences that the Spaniards had preceded him in this enterprise. This estimable and learned gentleman was unable to continue his operations from lack of funds, and also of experienced and practical miners. Since 1856 nothing has been done in Jamaica on a considerable scale in this direction, and yet here, unless the leading geologists and mineralogists of the day are in error, lies the chief wealth of the island, wealth which may possibly be absolutely inexhaustible, and which certainly is worthy of investigation.

In the mountains several specimens of porphyry and granite, as well as of several kinds of white and coloured marble, have been found, and a few sapphires, emeralds, agates, and other precious stones have been picked up from time to time, indicating possibly the existence of greater quantities, if only diligently searched for. Some ten years ago there was a great talk about "Jamaica diamonds." It was said that the king of stones has been discovered in immense quantities near Kingston. The report was in a certain sense a hoax. What was really found was a great number of beautiful crystals, which when properly cut were exceedingly brilliant, and which might still be of value as articles of jewelry.

Jamaica, like all islands of volcanic origin and limestone formation, abounds in magnificent and vast caverns and deep sink holes. Of these caves by far the most beautiful is Cave Hall Penn, two miles east of Dry Harbour. There are also a great many mineral springs.

We now come to the all-important—to the intending emigrant—question of climate. No part of the world in the same latitude possesses such a marvellous variety of climates as Jamaica, owing to its insular position, and to the number of high mountains and plateaux which it contains. The coast is less wholesome than the interior; but of late years the improved

condition of the cities has rendered epidemics much less frequent than they used to be, even in the sea-ports.

The plateaux, which are a kind of mountain plains, are blessed with much the same delightful climate as the south of France and the western coast of Italy. The thermometer rarely falls lower than 60°, and never ascends higher than 90°, at any season of the year. Here also the heavy dews are less frequent than they are on the coast, or in the inland valleys. A great many able medical men have studied carefully these mountain climates, and express but one opinion as to their extraordinary salubrity.

There are two rainy seasons, and two dry. The spring rains begin some time after the sun has passed the equator, in the middle of April and beginning of May. But in these months rains are generally partial, and come down only in showers; the dry weather frequently continues in the month of June, especially on the southern side of the island. The heavy rains commence in June, or even later, and last about two months; they are by far the most violent of all that occur during the year, and at this time the air is very sultry. This intense heat, joined to a still breathless atmosphere, is a presage of the approaching torrents. The clouds hastily gather and form into a compact mass, overspreading the sky, which just before was cloudless and serene. A tremendous peal of thunder bursts from these dark clouds, and in a few hours the rain descends in torrents, of which no one who has not witnessed them can form any idea. During the continuance of the rain, the heavens are rent with incessant peals of thunder, and by quick vivid flashes of lightning. These rains set in regularly every day, and continue from two to three hours, sometimes even for several days and nights without intermission. The autumnal, or "fall" rains, as they are called by the planters, come in October and November; they are by no means so heavy as those of the spring, nor are they usually accompanied by thunder and lightning, but they are not unfrequently attended by heavy gusts of wind from the north. In the mountains the rains are earlier, more frequent and more heavy than in the low country. The difference between sun and shade is remarkable, often amounting to 20 and 30 degrees. It is less sensible in the low lands, but in the mountains it is singularly noticeable.

The extreme length of the Island of Jamaica is 144 miles from east to west. The greatest width may be estimated as 49 miles, whilst the surface is about 4,200 square miles. The eastern part of the country is elevated and filled up by the grand chain of the Blue Mountains, the principal ridge of which occupies the middle of the district and runs nearly due east and west. These mountains vary in height from 5,000 to 6,000 feet above the level of the ocean, but some of their peaks attain as much as 7,500 feet. The valleys intersected by them are generally narrow, but very fertile. West of this mountain tract, the plain of Liguanea extends along the southern shore, and is nearly thirty miles long, with an average breadth of from four to five miles, but it is not remarkably productive. A range of low hills screen this plain from that of Vere, which is eighteen miles long, and about nine miles at its extreme width. To the north of these plains the hills do not rise much above 2,000 feet, and farther west they sink lower still, though even in these parts they occupy nearly the whole of the surface, having only a few plains of moderate extent along

the southern coast, whilst on the northern shores they approach the sea. All the valleys and level tracts dispersed among these hills are astonishingly luxuriant, and contain the finest sugar plantations. Though the rivers are numerous, not one of them is navigable except the Black River, which is ascended by flat-bottomed boats and canoes to a distance of thirty miles.

Jamaica may well be proud of its harbours, of which over thirty can afford shelter to the largest vessels. The finest is Port Royal or Kingston Harbour, which is six miles in length and two wide. It is divided from the sea by a narrow slip of low land, and provides anchorage for vessels of almost any size. The harbours of "Old Harbour," Lucea, and Port Antonio on the northern, and Port Morant on its southern side, are equally spacious and safe.

Jamaica is divided into three counties: Surrey to the east, Middlesex in the centre, and Cornwall to the west. The principal cities are Kingston, which stands on the plain of Liguanea, and has a population of 40,000 inhabitants (1883), and is the commercial centre; Santiago della Vega, popularly called Spanish Town, is, however, the seat of Government, and stands in the same plain as Kingston. It is the handsomest town in the island, and possesses a population of over 8,000 souls. The general population of the island, according to the last census, was 580,000, being an increase of 73,650 during the previous ten years. Of these there are: whites, 14,432; coloured, 109,946; blacks, 444,186, the remainder being Coolies and Chinese. Port Royal is now inhabited by about 7,000 persons, but it will never probably recover its former position.

The character of the scenery is extremely beautiful, there being everywhere a great abundance of wood and water. Many travellers declare that the coast-line is equal to that of the Riviera of Genoa or of the Bay of Naples. The mountains in many parts rise up from the sea, with most picturesque confusion, sometimes sternly rocky, and even terrifically abrupt and bold, whilst at other points they are clad with the richest vegetation to their very summits. The river scenery is also most charming and varied, whereas the grandeur of some of the gorges and passes in the mountains are exceedingly impressive. The clearness of the atmosphere, the rich colourings of the rocks, the deep blue sky above, and the incredible wealth of the flora, the almost innumerable waterfalls, the tall and waving palms, and the gorgeous tropical vegetation on all sides, combine to create ever-changing vistas, worthy of the pen of a Milton or of the pallet of a Turner. The later testimony of a very distinguished American, Hon. John Bigelow, editor of the 'Evening Post' of New York, and lately minister to France, is also highly in favour not only of the scenery of Jamaica but of its vast natural wealth and capacities. In a series of most interesting papers published in Littel's 'Living Age,' Mr. Bigelow says: "This island is so richly productive in everything conducive to man's comfort and welfare, vegetable and mineral, that no one can want for good food, and really no one ought to be poor. Indeed, the marvel to me is that everybody is not very rich, for all that is required to revive the wealth of this superbly reproductive island is a little order and energy—above all, energy."

The fruits are of infinite variety. Among them are the pineapple, shaddock, custard apple, bananas, star apple, chirimoya, tamarind, cocoa-nuts, olive, date, plantains, mulberry, akee, breadfruits, every

variety of melons, plums, oranges, lemons, mangoes, grapes, pears, and in the mountains where the climate is favourable, cherries, figs, peaches, and even strawberries grow in sufficient abundance. Peas, beans, potatoes, yams, cassava, ochra, choco, calalue, and a curious variety of salads, are to be found all over the island. Maize and Indian corn grow luxuriantly, far more so than they even do in the Southern states of America. The Guinea grass, which is superior to any other for grazing purposes, grows wild to the height of from five to six feet. There are to be found growing wild in the woods an abundance of rich dye-stuffs, drugs, and spices of the greatest value, yet at present these are much neglected. There are also immense crops of pimento, and ginger, cochineal, spikenard, liquorice root, castor oil nuts, vanilla, pepper of every variety, arrowroot, ipecacuanha, jalap, cassia, semia, and of many other medicinal roots, plants and seeds. The forest abounds in the rarest cabinet woods. Mr. Bigelow seems to think that silk could be cultivated, since the mulberry tree grows, and the plateaux are not hotter than are the plains of Lombardy and France. It is certain that the flora could be utilized for perfumery purposes, since it is exceedingly highly scented. Several rather successful attempts have been made within the past year or so to establish essence distilleries. The Frangipani so much used in perfumery grows wild all over the east side of the island.

The pineapple, always a great article of West Indian commerce, could be made to produce, Mr. John Hunt assures us, "at least ten times more than it does at present." This gentleman, writing in 1881, tells us that "the culture of this fruit in Jamaica has often been made to yield a clear profit of £80 per acre per annum, and yet," he adds, "the industry leaves much to be desired." In 1876 some successful experiments of banana cultivation were made on the plains of St. Catherine, and with great success. "At the present time," Mr. Septimus Feutardo says, "my crop yielded about £18 to £20 an acre clear profit. One field of 18 acres gave a net return of £70, but another of only 10 yielded in one year £240 net. This commerce is already assuming great importance, notably with the United States.

The value of the exports in 1884 was £1,614,583; the imports, £,1377,080. The annual revenue, £567,700. The exports in order of importance are sugar, rum, fruits, coffee, pimento, logwoods, ginger, cocoa, beeswax and honey, lancewood spars. The distribution of trade is about half to the United Kingdom, thirty per cent. to the United States, and the remainder to other countries.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—Jamaica is a large island in the Caribbean Sea, to the southward of Cuba, between 17° 40′ and 18° 30′ north latitude, and 76° 10′ and 78° 30′ west longitude. From east to west it has an extreme length of 140 miles, with an extreme breadth of 49 miles, its total area being estimated at about 4,200 square miles. The Cayman Islands, sometimes called Turks and Caicos Islands, situated some 200 miles to

the north-west, and consisting of Grand and Salt Cay, together with the small islands and "cays" immediately adjacent thereto, are included within the Government of Jamaica, having been annexed on the 1st January, 1874, by Order in Council under an Act of the Imperial Parliament.

There is a Legislative Board for these islands, regulating taxation, expenditure and other local matters. Grand Cay contains 2,000 inhabitants.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The eastern part of Jamaica is mountainous, a range known as the Blue Mountains traversing this part of the island from east to west. These mountains vary in height from 5,000 to 6,000 feet above the sea level, and some of the highest peaks attain an elevation of 7,500 feet. There are several rivers, the principal being the Minho, the Cobre and the Blackwater, the last named being the only one navigable, and the valleys between the various ranges are, with very few exceptions, exceedingly fertile.

BAYS AND HARBOURS.—The coasts contain numerous safe and excellent harbours, over thirty of which are capable of affording shelter to the largest vessels. The finest is Port Royal or Kingston Harbour, six miles in length by two miles in width, which is separated from the sea by a narrow strip of low land and provides a secure anchorage for vessels of almost any size. The harbours of Port Antonio and Lucca, on the north side of the island, with "Old Harbour" and Port Morant, on the south side, are commodious and equally safe. Other fine harbours are Montego Bay and Falmouth.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—Jamaica is divided into three counties: Surrey to the east, Middlesex in the centre, and Cornwall to the west. The principal centres of population are Kingston, a town containing some 40,000 inhabitants, on a fine harbour on the south coast, which is the great commercial centre in the island, and Santiago della Vega, popularly known as Spanish Town, a little distance to the westward, the Seat of Government. Spanish Town has a population slightly in excess of 8,000. Upon a tongue of land at the entrance to Kingston Harbour is Port Royal, now a small place of some 7,000 inhabitants, but a splendid town prior to its destruction by an earthquake in the year 1692.

TRINIDAD.

GOVERNOR,
SIR WILLIAM ROBINSON, K.C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. J. SCOTT BUSHE, C.M.G.

AUDITOR-GENERAL,
H. W. CHANTRELL.

DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC WORKS,
J. E. TANNER, M.I.C.E.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. SIR JOHN GORRIE.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. A. S. GATTY.

SOLICITOR-GENERAL,
M. M. PHILIP.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. HORACE FITZGERALD, HON. H. COURT.

TRINIDAD.

TRINIDAD is the most southern of the chain of islands lying between the Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea. It is situated to the eastward of Venezuela, between 10° 3′ and 10° 50′ N. latitude, and 61° 39′ and 62° of W. longitude from Greenwich, and has an area of 1,754 square miles.

It was on Trinity Sunday (31st July, 1496) that Columbus, then on his third voyage, first sighted the island, to which, when taking possession of it in the name of the Sovereigns of Spain, he gave a name at once commemorative of the date of its discovery and indicative of the Faith of its discoverers. For nearly a century subsequent to that eventful day the history of the island is involved in obscurity. The little that is known is contained in the chronicles of the Dominican monks who accompanied the Conquistadores, and presents but little of interest to general readers.

In 1584 or thereabouts Don Antonio de Berro y Oruña, the founder of Spanish Guyana, made Trinidad his headquarters and built the city of San José de Oruña, about six miles from the coast of the Gulf of Paria. This town (which remained the capital of the island until a few years before its capture by the British) was burnt by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595. From that date until 1781 the Colony can hardly be said to have made any progress, as the following data will prove. In 1733 there were but 162 male adults in the island, and of these only 28 were whites. This return does not include either the Indians or the slaves. The Revenue of the Colony was 231 dollars—not quite £48 sterling.

In 1781 M. Roume de St. Laurent, a French planter of Grenada, when on a visit to the island, was struck with its extraordinary resources, and he conceived a plan for inducing foreign immigrants to settle in the Colony, a thing hitherto prohibited by the law of Spain, and went first to Caracas and subsequently to Madrid to obtain for his scheme the sanction of the Spanish Government. In this he was successful, and in November, 1783, what was called a "Cedula" of population, was signed by the King of Spain. The carrying out of this important measure was entrusted to Don José Maria Chacon, who was destined to be the last of the Spanish Governors of Trinidad. Its immediate result was a great influx of population from the old French Islands, to which a few years later a fresh impetus was given by the events in those Colonies which were caused by the French Revolution. The following figures will give some idea of the

great changes which were brought about by the Cedula of 1783. In that year the population of the Colony consisted of:—

Whites	126
Free coloured	295
Slaves	310
Indians	2,032
Total	2,763

Fourteen years later, in 1797, the population was thus classified:—

Whites	2,151
Free coloured	4,474
Indians	1,078
Slaves	10,000
Total	17,712

Previous to 1783 the whole trade of the island had been carried on by one small vessel of about 150 tons burthen, which came two or three times a year from the Dutch Island of St. Eustatius with such articles as were needed by the colonists and for which they bartered in return cacao, vanilla, indigo and cotton. Between 1784 and 1797 the average yearly tonnage was from 7,000 to 8,000 tons, and in 1802 it rose to 15,000 tons. (The total tonnage entered and cleared at the ports of the Colony in 1885 was 1,069,121 tons.)

It was early in 1797 that the capture of Trinidad was effected. On the 16th February of that year a fleet of 18 vessels, carrying 740 guns, under the command of Admiral Harvey, sailed into the Gulf of Paria. In addition to this formidable force there were on board 6,750 troops under Sir Ralph Abercromby. There were in the harbour four Spanish vessels, carrying 258 guns, and having on board 700 troops. The crews of these vessels, as well as the troops, were however so reduced by fever as to be of little use to the small garrison which Chacon had at his command, and after a few shots had been exchanged he surrendered, the capitulation being signed on the following day.

Sir Ralph Abercromby appointed Lieutenant-Colonel (afterwards the famous Sir Thomas) Picton to be the first English Governor of Trinidad, a difficult and dangerous post, which he filled for six years with great advantage to the Colony. Trinidad was finally ceded to Great Britain at the Treaty of Amiens, but not without great opposition on the part of Napoleon, then First Consul, who saw the immense advantage to a commercial nation like England which would accrue from the possession of an island which, from its geographical position, could command the trade of the great rivers of South America, and possessing a harbour in which could ride in safety throughout the year the mercantile fleets of the world. A slight notion of what this trade might be may be formed from the fact that during the first five years after the capture of the island articles of British manufacture to the value of 1,000,000 dollars were sold annually by the merchants of Trinidad to the traders from Venezuela alone. This was the recognized trade, but a far larger one was carried on clandestinely, as is proved by the fact that Colonel Picton reported to the Secretary of State that Spanish launches annually carried away from Trinidad articles of British manufactures to the value of 8,000,000 dollars. Unfortunately for

Trinidad the fears of the future Emperor of the French were not realized, and Trinidad was fated to be looked upon by British statesmen merely as a sugar-producing Colony. It was even placed at a disadvantage in that respect, passing as it did under British rule just at the moment when the eloquence of Wilberfore and his followers was awakening men's minds to the iniquities of the African slave trade, and it was therefore decided to treat the newly-acquired Colony as a field of experiment in which should be tried the proposed innovations upon the Colonial system. In spite of this, Trinidad, under its various Governors—and especially under the firm and enlightened rule of Sir Ralph Woodford, which lasted from 1813 to 1829—prospered and progressed.

Like all the other British Colonies, it suffered from the results of Emancipation, and was brought to the verge of ruin in 1844; Lord Harris, who was then Governor of the Colony, felt that nothing but prompt and energetic measures could save it. Coolie immigration had just been commenced, but it was by his exertions, ably seconded by Mr. C. W. Warner, C.B., then Attorney-General of the island, that this important measure was pressed on and the system firmly established. It has continued until the present day, and although not unattended with serious difficulties, has undoubtedly been of inestimable benefit to the Colony. That which, however, has saved Trinidad, more particularly of late years, from the disastrous results of the low prices of the principal West Indian product is the fact that it does not depend upon one branch of industry alone. Sugar is, of course, the chief staple, and when that suffers all other industries feel the effects; but owing to the bold and enlightened course pursued by Sir Arthur Gordon when Governor of this Colony from 1867 to 1870 an impetus was given to the cultivation of cacao and other minor industries by calling into legal existence a body of small proprietors who had hitherto been mere squatters. In spite of the prejudice which exists in all the Colonies formerly cultivated by slave labour against the opening up of Crown lands to small owners, the policy inaugurated by Sir Arthur Gordon and carried on by his successors has held its own, and the consequence has been that during the recent hard times the middle and lower classes have barely felt the pressure. The trade with the Spanish Main, though by no means so flourishing as it ought to be, has also been of great assistance to the Colony, and served to maintain its credit.

It may fairly be predicted that as Trinidad becomes better known its wonderful resources will be utilized, and possibly another Roume de St. Laurent may be found to repeat the experiment which was so successful one hundred years ago.

In spite of its situation, the climate of Trinidad is healthy and not in the least injurious to Europeans, provided always that they will take ordinary precautions and be abstemious in their habits. The mean temperature may be stated at 76° Fahrenheit during the cool season and 79° Fahrenheit in the hot season. Its soil is extremely fertile and suited to various kinds of cultivation. Sugar and cacao are its staples; coffee is also cultivated, and, were there but a sufficient labouring population, would, as well as tobacco, become of great value to the Colony. Cocoanuts also are largely grown, and were it not for the scarcity of labour would be extremely profitable. One of the most remarkable features of the island is the Pitch Lake, which is some 90 acres in extent, and which, although giving but a

comparatively slight income to the island, is yet indirectly a source of great wealth.

The total area of Trinidad is about 1,120,000 acres. Of this, according to the assessment of 1884, there are :—

	Acres.
Cultivated in sugar cane	52,150
Do. cacao and coffee	21,279
Do. ground provisions	16,986
Do. cocoanuts	2,885
Total in crop	93,300
Pasture	6,103
Uncultivated	154,102
Total alienated	253,511

By the census of 1881 the population was ascertained to be 153,128.

The importance of the Colony may be estimated from the number of steamers arriving at it from all parts of the world, and of which there are now :—

	Per month.
The Royal Mail steamers	4
Do. cargo boats	2
Compagnie Générale Transatlantique	2
West India and Pacific Line	2
Harrison Line	1
Joseph Hoult (of Liverpool)	1
London Direct Line	4
Clyde steamers	1
Quebec and Gulf	2
Atlantic and West Indian (American)	3
Venezuelan	4

The Revenue and Expenditure for the last five years has been :—

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1881	£434,235	£466,195
1882	437,383	441,193
1883	458,344	464,430
1884	476,058	471,190
1885	429,307	443,920

The value of Imports and Exports for the same period :—

	Imports.	Exports.
1881	£2,226,276	£2,099,101
1882	2,399,794	2,452,033
1883	2,663,022	2,686,670
1884	3,083,870	2,769,727
1885	2,241,478	2,246,664

And the Public Debt of the Colony on the 30th September, 1885, was £583,820.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—Trinidad, the largest of the islands in the Caribbean Sea, known as the Lesser Antilles, is situated immediately opposite some of the numerous mouths of the Orinoco, and to the eastward of Venezuela, from which it is separated by the Gulf of Paria. Its exact position is between 10° 3′ and 10° 50′ north latitude, and 61° 39′ and 62° west longitude. The total area of the island is 1,754 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The island has three chains of hills running from east to west, but the interior is generally level. Its most remarkable feature is the so-called Pitch Lake, an extensive place, some 90 acres in extent, covered with bitumen. The same substance is found in other places throughout the island, and forms an article of export. Mud volcanoes occur in the same region. Trinidad possesses an agreeable climate and a fertile soil, capable of growing in perfection sugar, cacao, coffee, tobacco, and other productions of tropical countries.

TOWNS.—The capital of the Colony is Port of Spain, a seaport town of some 32,000 inhabitants, situated in a gently inclined plain, at the north-east corner of the Gulf of Paria. Other towns are San Fernando (population 6,335); about 30 miles to the southward of Port of Spain, with a harbour which is considered to be the finest in the West Indies, and Macaripe, on the north coast, which also has a good harbour.

BARBADOS.

GOVERNOR,
SIR CHARLES CAMERON C. LEES, K.C.M.G.

GENERAL COMMANDING THE FORCES,
MAJ.-GEN. SIR C. K. PEARSON, K.C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. C. C. KNOLLYS.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. SIR CHARLES PACKER.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. W. C. REEVES, Q.C.

AUDITOR-GENERAL,
C. A. KING HARMAN.

TREASURER,
JOHN SIMPSON HOWELL.

CONTROLLER OF CUSTOMS,
I. K. BROWNE.

BARBADOS.

BARBADOS, the most windward of the Caribbee Islands, is situated in lat. 13° 4′ N. and long. 59° 37′ W. It is 21 miles long and 14 in breadth, and contains 166 square miles, somewhat of the shape of the Isle of Wight. It is a little smaller, but, unlike the "Garden of England," is situated in mid ocean, and inhabited by a teeming population of over 1,030 to the square mile. First visited by the Portuguese at an unknown date, it was named by them "Los Barbados," from the number of bearded fig-trees or banyans which were found growing there; it was reported to be totally uninhabited, which was not the case, though few if any of the aborigines remained when the English took possession in the year 1605. In a French map of the world of the date of 1536 it appears under the name of "Bernados," and in subsequent documents or maps it was called Barbudos, Bernados, Barnodo, S. Barduda, S. Barbudos, and Los Barbados.

In the year 1605 the 'Olive,' an English vessel, touched at the island and landed some men, who inscribed on a tree, "James, King of England and of this island."

James I. made a grant of the island to the Earl of Marlborough, and the first English Governor, Thomas Warner, was appointed to this, one of the oldest of the British Colonies in the year 1625. The island has never been severed from England, and although from time to time there have been internal dissensions, it has never undergone the vicissitudes of its neighbours, nor suffered from foreign invasion. Two years later Charles I. granted all the Caribbee Islands, including Barbados, to the Earl of Carlisle, erecting and incorporating them into a Province with him as Lord, and providing that all laws should be made "de et cum consilio assensu et approbatione liberorum tenentium." Shortly afterwards, being absent from England, Lord Carlisle's patent was revoked in favour of the Earl of Pembroke, but again restored to him on his return. A considerable number of settlers had by this time established themselves, making clearings in the forests, which, with the exception of a few savannahs, or, as they were locally called, Champion Grounds, covered the whole island. They cultivated tobacco, cotton, indigo and sugar,* and owned slaves, but the hardships of early colonial life were increased by a petty civil war entered into by the followers of the Governors who had been appointed by the various claimants to the island. The downfall of Charles I. brought a large influx of Royalists with their families and possessions to take shelter

* At first the sugar cane was only cultivated for the purpose of brewing a refreshing drink. In 1640 a Dutchman from Brazil taught the secret of allowing the cane to ripen, and of boiling the juice. At the same time the planters learned to distil rum, called at, first "Kill-devil," afterwards "Rum-bullion."

in the island, which still had a Royalist Governor, and this influx contributed greatly to people and enrich the island, and gave a tone to the tastes and manners of its inhabitants, which is still plainly discernible. It is recorded that, in the seventeenth century, before the combined effects were felt of the Navigation Act, the rivalry of Jamaica, and the growth of the French plantations, Barbados was "the most populous, rich, and industrious spot on the earth."

The Commonwealth received the surrender of the Island in 1651 upon terms embodied in the charter of Barbados of 1652, which confirmed to the inhabitants their rights of self-taxation by a representative assembly, and held it for eleven years, until the restoration of Charles II., when the various patent-holders brought forward their claims, to satisfy which a duty of 4½ per cent. on all exports was imposed; and the proprietary Government was dissolved. In spite of protest, the export duty of 4½ per cent. was continued until the year 1838, four years after the abolition of slavery.

From the above brief sketch it may readily be understood that Barbados shortly became, not so much a Colony as a piece of the Mother Country which had been transplanted. In the year 1629 the island was divided into six parishes, and in 1645 into eleven, as now, which were, with the exception of Christ Church, each named after a patron saint, St. George, of course, being one. The estates were mostly called after their original proprietors, and have not changed since, such as Drax Hall, where the first sugar ever made on English soil was turned out, while in various parts are met old familiar names, such as Hastings, Worthing, Henley, Kendal and Whitehaven.

Although by the grant of Charles I. to the Earl of Carlisle the people were invested with all the liberties, franchises, and privileges of English subjects, the earlier Governors ruled the island absolutely, aided by a servile Council appointed by themselves. It was not until the year 1645 that the enjoyment of full constitutional rights was secured, when a law was passed which enacted that none of the laws then existing should be altered, nor anything added to them, without the consent of the Governor, Council, and freeholders out of every parish, entitled "A General Assembly," and that every parish should have two representatives at least elected by the freeholders. The number of the Assembly was at first twenty-two, but later two more were added for the city of Bridgetown Until comparatively recently the members of the Legislature also exercised executive and judicial functions, and, with the exception of the separation of these, the Constitution as originally framed has scarcely been altered. The Colony may now be described as possessing representative institutions, but the Crown has a veto on legislation, and retains the appointment and control of public officers. The Government consists of a Governor, aided by an Executive Council, a Legislative Council consisting of nine members appointed by the Queen, and a House of Assembly having twenty-four members elected annually, on the basis of a very low franchise. The Executive Council consists of the officer commanding the troops, the Colonial Secretary, Attorney General, and such other persons as Her Majesty may be pleased to appoint. The executive part of the Government, corresponding to the Ministry, consists of the Governor and members of the Executive Council, one member of the Legislative Council, and four members of the House of Assembly nominated annually

by the Governor. This body is called the Executive Committee, and has charge of all Government institutions, introduces money votes, prepares the estimates, and initiates Government measures.

The island is of coral formation, and its successive lines of cliffs show various upheavals. Its highest hill is Mount Hillaby, which has an altitude of 1,145 feet. A line of hills runs throughout the island from north to south; these are intersected in all directions by deep and precipitous canons, called ravines or gulleys, and exhibit at times extremely bold and picturesque scenery. The origin of these ravines has puzzled many, as the mountain streams have not sufficient force to cut their way through the rock, but it is probable that they may be accounted for in the following manner. A deep top stratum of coral rock rests upon a substratum of clay; the coral holds the rain-fall like a sponge, and by gravitation gradually gives it off upon the clay; here the water runs together and constitutes subterranean streams of considerable volume, which make their own way on the top of the clay and form caverns. The roofs of the caverns from time to time fall in, and the débris is washed away by the stream, until at length the cavern is laid open to the sky and becomes a ravine. Several such subterranean streams are known, the largest being in what is known as the Bowmanston cave. This cave was accidentally discovered by the sinking of a well, which on reaching a depth of two hundred feet, pierced a cavity in the rock. The only way of entry is by descending the well in a bucket, by which means several exploring parties of a scientific character have, during the last few years, made careful examination of the cavern and its stream with a view to its utilization as a water supply. This work is attended with great labour and some little danger, on account of the masses of débris fallen and still falling from the roof. The volume of the stream has been measured in the dry season, and in the wet, and is estimated to yield from something under two to fully five millions of gallons per diem, yet it is not known where this stream has its origin, nor whither it flows. It is at an altitude of nearly 400 feet above sea level.

The variety of products which were grown during the earlier days have gradually given way to sugar, and at the present time, out of a total acreage of 106,470 acres, an area of 100,000 acres is devoted to canes, the greater part of the remainder being taken up by roads, buildings and ravines. Of the acres devoted to canes a certain portion is planted and reaped every year. The remainder is given a short rest, and is planted with what is called an "offal" crop, that is to say, sweet potatoes, or other roots, or maize. This crop is sold if the prices are high, but just as often ploughed in. The cultivation of the cane itself has been brought nearly to perfection, and the farming is high, consisting greatly of spade work. The manufacture of the sugar, however, is capable of great improvement, the chief want being centralization. At present each estate of a few hundred acres makes its own sugar, frequently with the aid of an old-fashioned windmill, so that the farmer is also a manufacturer; and though admirable as the former, for many reasons, the chief being want of capital, he fails as the latter. The Colony is particularly adapted to the establishment of central factories. During the present low prices of sugar, attention might well be turned to other products. Tobacco, for instance, is indigenous, and the common species spring up wherever there is a vacant spot of land, especially on the sites of old houses. With a little care, it can be cultivated at a fair profit.

Roots valuable for the starches they yield give a heavy return. Arrowroot produces about 10,000 lbs. of roots to the acre, giving 2,000 lbs. of starch. Cassava and yams produce 8,000 lbs. to the acre, sweet potatoes 30,000 lbs., while the ground or pea nut yields about 2,000 lbs. Experiments are now being made with fibrous plants, such as cactus and silk grass. All these, as well as ginger, could be profitably cultivated.

The teeming population, increasing yearly, in spite of emigration, while contributing to the wealth of the Colony, and to the excellence of its cultivation, require an abundant and cheap food supply. The average price of the nutritious roots mentioned above is—for sweet potatoes, from $\frac{3}{4}d.$ to $1d.$, and for yams, $1d.$ to $1\frac{1}{4}d.$ per pound. Sweet potatoes are always in season, as are also bananas, which sell for about four a penny. Six and a quarter million lbs. of American salt fish is annually consumed, costing by retail about $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per pound, while the local fisheries furnish an inexhaustible supply. In the fishing industry 366 boats are engaged, averaging two to three tons burthen, and having a crew of three to four men. It is estimated that about 1,500 persons obtain their living thereby, and that the annual value of the fish is about £17,000 sterling. The most important of all kinds is the flying fish; these in appearance are similar to herrings, though smaller, and, like them, swim in shoals. Their season commences in November, and lasts about seven months, and the method of taking them is simple in the extreme. The boats set out very early in the morning, and return in the afternoon. As soon as a few flying fish rise out of the water near the boat, the sails and masts are taken down and the boat allowed to drift, a bag containing rotten fish pounded up is let down into the water over the bow, the oil from this makes a calm and attracts the fish, which are simply scooped in with large landing nets. When the take is good, the number of fish caught is simply limited by the capacity of the boat, and boats have been known to sink from overloading. A few hours after the boats reach land the fish become exceedingly cheap, selling for about five or six pounds weight for a penny, and sometimes even less. Attempts are being made to preserve them, and put them up after the manner of herrings.

The flying fish season is succeeded by that of sea eggs, which are dived for at a depth sometimes of six fathoms. The part eaten is only the roe, and but little is obtained from each animal; their vast quantities, however, furnish a rich and nutritious return. Besides the above, enormous red fish, grouper, and other kinds, are taken by deep sea fishing with lines, and lobsters and cray fish along the shore. These cheap means of obtaining food, the habit of wearing boots only on Sunday, the scant quantity of clothes and firing necessary, render the agricultural labourer comfortable on his small wage, the ruling rate of which is one shilling per diem for men, and ten pence for women.

The West Indies have of late years been more and more frequently chosen for a winter resort, and offer many attractions. In Barbados the living is cheap, and almost every comfort and luxury can be obtained. There are several hotels, or a private house can be taken; while a large hotel, on the American system, is nearly completed, and is expected to be shortly opened. Carriages can be hired by the hour, or jobbed by the month; safe bathing in the most perfectly transparent water is provided by bathing houses built over the sea. Churches are numerous. The tempera-

ture from December to June is moderate, with delightfully cool mornings and evenings; and, although Barbados does not present the tropical luxuriance of growth and grandeur of most of the West Indian Islands, the roads are numerous and excellent for driving, and the gardens filled with hothouse shrubs and flowers, growing to a perfection unknown in England.

Barbados has well sustained its early reputation. Its people are industrious and prosperous, and quick to see the direction in which their interests lie. This trait has led to the establishment of life and fire insurance, railway, tramway, water and gas companies; while almost every house of any size near the town has its telephone. The geographical situation of the island. and its general healthiness, lead to many advantages, causing it to be the headquarters of the troops and of the Royal Mail Steam Packet, and other lines of mail steamers.

A former resident, General Christopher Codrington, has given the island the only place in the West Indies where a University education can be obtained, namely Codrington College, founded in the year 1710. This college is now connected with the University of Durham, and its students are eligible for all the degrees. Much attention is paid to education in all grades, there being two schools of a high class with University men as masters, one in town, and the other in the country. Boys from the larger and older of these have frequently won scholarships at the English Universities.

The Church of England in Barbados has not been disestablished, but the principle of concurrent endowment adopted. The Bishoprick was founded in 1824, and 38 incumbencies as well as the Bishop are supported by the State.

Crimes of violence are rare, and the people are contented and well satisfied with themselves, their island, and their form of Government.

The chief industry of the Island is the growth and manufacture of sugar. A rough but useful description of pottery is made in one district, and a manufactory of sulphur matches exists in Bridgetown. A small industry is carried on in the Scotland district, where petroleum oil is found. There is an abundant supply of fish, and at certain seasons of the year a large portion of the population turn their efforts in this direction.

There is no yearly hiring of agricultural labourers, they are paid 10*d.* per day, or by the task or job; an able-bodied labourer may earn from 10*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.* within the ordinary working hours. Domestic servants are always hired by the month, their wages varying from 8*s.* 4*d.* to £2. Masons, carpenters, and other trades, 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per day.

The average prices of the various articles in common use in Barbados are as follows.—Wheaten flour, per barrel £1 9*s.* 2*d.*; wheaten bread, per lb., 3*d.*; horned cattle, £15; horses, £40; sheep, £1 13*s.* 4*d.*; goats, £1 5*s.*; pork per 100 lbs., £2 1*s.* 8*d.*; milk per gallon, 1*s.* 4*d.*: butter, fresh, per lb., 1*s.*; butter, salt, per lb., 1*s.* 8*d.*; cheese, per lb., 1*s.* 6*d.*; beef, 10*d.*; mutton, 10*d.*; pork, 6*d.*; rice, 3*d.*; coffee, 10*d.*; tea, black, 3*s.*; sugar, refined, 4*d.*; salt, ½*d.*; cod fish, salt, 3*d.*; wine, per dozen, £1 13*s.* 4*d.*; brandy, per gallon, 16*s.* 8*d.*; beer, per dozen, 10*s.* 6*d.*; tobacco, per lb. 3*s.* 6*d.*

The Revenue is derived mainly from customs, port and harbour dues, rum duty licences and land tax; and amounted in 1884 to £145,297 3*s.* 9*d.*

The total value of the imports for the same year was £1,156,229 19*s.* 6*d.*, and of the exports £1,318,878 12*s.* 6*d.* Quantity of Raw Sugar exported, 58,074¾ hogsheads.

A railway line runs from Bridgetown to St. Andrews, a distance of about 26 miles. From Bridgetown to a distance of 14 miles, the line is inland, the rest of the line is along the east coast of the Island.

The number of vessels entered inwards in 1884 was 1220 with a burthen of 403,279 tons, and a crew of 16,216, and of vessels entered outwards 1229 with 403,825 tons, and 16,215 persons as crew.

The number of Elementary Schools in the island is large, supported by school fees, and Government aid. Also many higher schools, endowed and State aided, all of the Church of England. There are also Moravian and Wesleyan schools, but no schools connected with the Roman Catholic Church.

Barbados is a milltary station, and the headquarters of the military command in the West Indies. The number of troops are:—Officers, 44; warrant officers, 5; sergeants, 55; drummers, 14; rank and file, 620. Total, 738.

There is a small fort on the south-west of the island, called Charles Fort, containing two 7-ton 7-inch R. M. L. guns, and two 64-pounder R. M. L. guns, mounted *en barbette.*

POPULATION.—Whites, 16,054; coloured, 155,806; males, 77,253; females, 94,607. Total population 171,860.

GEOGRAPHY.

BARBADOS is situated in latitude 13° 4′ north, and longitude 59° 37′ west, lying to the eastward of the general range of the Antilles. It is nearly 21 miles long by 14 miles broad, and has an area of about 166 square miles. Well cultivated and more populous than any other island in the West Indies, Barbados is, next to Jamaica, the most important of the British possessions in these regions.

The island, which is encircled by coral reefs, has no portion of its surface more than a little over 1,100 feet above the sea level, but the general character of the country is nevertheless diversified and extremely picturesque. The soil is fertile, and although it possesses no metalliferous deposits, coal has been found, and petroleum, potter's clay, and several ochres occur in great abundance. The climate is healthy, but one great drawback to the prosperity of the country is its liability to be visited by hurricanes, which do incalculable damage.

The chief town and port is Bridgetown, with about 21,000 inhabitants, on the shores of Carlisle Bay, an open roadstead, much exposed to the wind from the south and south-west. There is, however, an inner harbour or careenage, protected by a structure called the Mole Head. Speightstown, upon the west coast, is further to the northward.

ST. VINCENT.

ST. VINCENT.

OFFICER ADMINISTERING THE GOVERNMENT AND COLONIAL SECRETARY,
AUGUSTUS FREDERICK GORE, C.M.G.

TREASURER AND COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS,
F. B. GRIFFITH.

CHIEF JUSTICE AND VICE CHANCELLOR,
HON. G. TRAFFORD.

ACTING ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
A. KINGDON.

ST. VINCENT.

THE city of Kingstown, is situated in a bay said to resemble that of Naples, at the foot of one of the spurs of Mount St. Andrews, which rises to the height of about 2,000 feet. Kingstown is the capital of the island of St. Vincent, and contains all the principal buildings connected with the administration of the Government. Of these the police barracks, Court house, general hospital, and gaol are highly creditable to the Colony, being built of stone or brick, and affording ample accommodation for their inmates. The town itself under its Warden is remarkably clean, and the markets for fish, vegetables, and meat, are thronged on market days with buyers and sellers.

Formerly the Constitution of the Colony was representative; and, so long as there were a sufficient number of resident proprietors, the system of House of Assembly, Legislative Council and Governor, did very well; but in recent years each successive election of members for the House of Assembly returned men less and less fitted for the duties of Legislators, owing to the departure of many proprietors who in former years had been resident in the island; and gradually a feeling began to grow up that a change in the Constitution had become necessary.

Effect was given in 1878 to this desire, and the form of Government was changed to that of a Crown Colony, consisting of the Governor and Legislative Council.

About a hundred years ago St. Vincent exported coffee, cocoa, indigo, and tobacco, but the cultivation of the sugar cane gradually superseded that of these products, until of late it has monopolised the attention of planters. Nor is it to be wondered at, for in the good old times the profit on a hogshead of sugar was between £30 and £40.

It is a matter of history that in 1834 slavery was abolished throughout the West Indies, and from that time the trials of the planter began, and the value of West Indian sugar estates has ever since progressively and steadily decreased, whilst the admission in 1846 of slave grown sugar under the same tariff much reduced the profits of the planter.

After the emancipation of the slaves, much difficulty was experienced in obtaining labour for the cultivation of estates, as the negroes seemed at first to look upon manual work as a remnant of slavery, and they therefore, to a very great extent, abandoned the estates, and took to growing "ground provisions," such as sweet potatoes, yams, edoes, &c., on their own account. Now, as only about half the area of the island (85,000 acres) is in cultivation, these squatters found no difficulty in appropriating Crown lands, until at last, in 1861, the system of introducing labourers from the East Indies was forced upon the planters, although at a considerable

expense, owing to the necessity of maintaining medical officers, estate hospitals and nurses, and of furnishing medical comforts, besides all which the proprietors had to afford proper accommodation for housing the immigrants.

In spite however of these efforts on the part of proprietors, the cultivation of the sugar cane became less and less remunerative, until it was almost annihilated a few years ago by the introduction in foreign countries of beetroot sugar, supported by large bounties. In fact, now it is difficult to make sugar in St. Vincent at a remunerative price, even with the greatest economy in cultivation and care in manufacture.

St. Vincent is one of the most healthy, if not the healthiest, of the West Indian Islands. At an elevation of 600 feet above the sea level the thermometer ranges from 68° Fahrenheit in the cool, to 88° in the hot season. The soil is very fertile, being watered by numerous streams and rivulets, abounding in small fish called mountain mullet, which, *par parenthèse*, take the artificial fly, like grayling, which they somewhat resemble in taste.

There are no venomous snakes in the island, although during the Carib War it is said that the French introduced some of the serpents from St. Lucia called Fer-de-Lance, whose bite is deadly.

The rainfall in the Colony averages about 100 inches a year. Thunderstorms are frequent during the wet season, which commences about the middle of May and ends early in February, the wind blowing generally from the north-east. The climate, although tropical, is suited to persons suffering from chest diseases, and people afflicted with consumption at home have been frequently known to prolong their lives by a residence in St. Vincent.

As regards garments, light flannels and merinoes should be worn next the skin; and Europeans should never omit to change their clothes after exposure to the rain.

The mountains, of which the highest is Morne Gavou (4,000 feet), form a ridge running from north to south throughout the island, fringed with a border of low lands upon which the sugar estates are situated.

To go back to the high lands, the most interesting feature is the Souffrière, an extinct volcano 3,700 feet high. There is a lake of about a mile in circumference at the bottom of the crater, the waters of which are of the colour of aquamarine. No one visiting St. Vincent should omit to ascend the Souffrière, the road to which is embroidered with flowers of all kinds, such as bigonias and orchids, whilst groves of magnificent tree ferns abound. The last eruption of this volcano took place in 1812, since which date the giant has been dormant; but before reaching the summit of the mountain the smell of sulphur warns you that the monster is not quite extinct. With the exception of a few hogs and some agoutis, a small rodent, there are no wild animals in St. Vincent, although in a neighbouring island, about twelve miles distant, called Balliceaux, deer and rabbits abound.

The sea produces any quantity of fish, from the hump-backed whale, from 20 to 30 feet in length, to the little "tree-tree," which resembles white bait, and is not more than an inch in length. Sharks are numerous, but appear to have lost their taste for human flesh, for it is an interesting fact that, although when a whale is being cut up, numbers of them make their appearance,

there is no instance on record of these usually voracious fish having attacked the swimmers when a boat is upset, an accident which not unfrequently occurs; for although the islanders, as a rule, manage these boats with great skill, sudden and fierce squalls rush down from the mountains giving no notice of their approach. In the event of an accident happening to any of the passage or fishing boats in the Bequia Channel, or off "Old Woman's Point," a gun is fired by the signalman on duty at Fort Charlotte, and a flag is hoisted half-mast high, whereupon an immediate rush takes place to the boats hauled up in Kingstown Bay, and a race then ensues as to which crew shall first reach the scene of the accident. A report is made in each case to the Governor in Council, who decides the amount of the reward to be paid after due consideration of the circumstances.

From the catalogue of the exhibits at the Colonial and Indian Exhibition, it will be seen what an enormous variety of products of all kinds flourish in St. Vincent. The two things wanting are Capital and Labour, but the introduction of the former will very soon cause a supply of the latter, the black population of the Grenadines and of Barbados being always ready to go when their services are fairly paid for; and for want of this, at one time of the year, only women and boys are to be found at Bequia, Cawanan and Union, all the men having gone to Grenada or Trinidad, to help in reaping the sugar crops of those islands.

The upset price of Crown lands is £1 an acre, and of these lands an area of about 40,000 acres is disposable. The soil on the Hillside slopes is well adapted to the growth of coffee, cocoa and spices; arrowroot, too, flourishes in the low lands, and will thrive on abandoned sugar estates, whilst indigo grows wild in many parts of the Carib country.

Labour can be had at from 10*d.* to 1*s.* a day, and the records of the Supreme Court show that the Creole inhabitants of St. Vincent are a law-abiding people, rarely if ever committing heinous offences. There are numerous so-called Free Coolies in the Colony, *i.e.*, those East Indian immigrants whose time of indenture has expired and who have taken the bounty of £10 to forego their right to return passages. These are a docile and hard-working contingent of the population, many of them having money in the Savings Bank, and possessing a little land.

The Caribs are now a well-behaved race, their old character for ferocity and treachery having been tamed down by the march of civilisation; they are of great use to the planters in shipping sugars on the Windward coast, a work of no little danger, where at most times of the year the sea is rough, and where the hogsheads have at no little personal risk and danger to be rolled down an inclined plank into the so-called "moses boats," (especially built for the purpose). A Carib is however as much at home in the breakers as a landsman is on shore; and as he has still retained his old characteristic for fearlessness, he takes a pride in this perilous work, and seldom or ever allows a hogshead to be damaged, although in a heavy sea the boats rear up almost perpendicularly as the swells rush beneath them to break their strength higher up on the shingles on shore.

GEOGRAPHY.

ST. VINCENT lies nearly due west of Barbados, in latitude 13° 10′ north and longitude 60° 57′ west. It is about 18 miles long by 11 broad, and has an area of 140 square miles. Some of the Grenadines, a cluster of small islands between Grenada and St. Vincent, are included within the Government of the latter island.

St. Vincent has an undulating surface, with a succession of gentle slopes, portions of which are used for the cultivation of the sugar cane. A volcanic ridge runs through the island from north to south, having at its northern extremity the Souffrière, a volcanic mountain 3,000 feet in height, celebrated for its violent eruption in 1812. The capital of the island is Kingstown, a place of between 5,000 and 6,000 inhabitants, on the south-west coast.

GRENADA.

GRENADA.

GOVERNOR-IN-CHIEF OF WINDWARD ISLES,
W. J. SENDALL.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
CAPT. IRWIN C. MALING.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. JOHN FOSTER GRESHAM.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. H. R. PIPON SCHOOLES

TREASURER,
F. M. CHADWICK.

GRENADA.

THE island of Grenada is situated in the Caribbean Sea, between the parallels of 12° 30′ and 11° 58′ N. lat., and 61° 20′ and 61° 35′ W. long., and forms one of the group known as the Windward Islands. It lies about 68 miles S.S.W. of the island of St. Vincent, and about 90 miles from the island of Trinidad. It is about 21 miles in length and 12 in its greatest breadth; and contains about 76,653 acres, of which about 2,000, situated on the heights in the centre of the island, remain as ungranted or Crown lands. The island is mountainous, and abounds in springs and streams of the purest water. There are also several mineral springs, which, with other indications, show the island to have been of volcanic origin.

The chief town of Grenada is called St. George. This town was originally built by the French, and was named by them Port Royal, which name it retained until the cession of the island to Great Britain in 1763. St. George is situated on the south-western side of the island in the middle of a large bay with a sandy bottom. In this bay it is estimated that 1,000 ships of 300 to 400 tons can ride at anchor comfortably and secure from storms. On the eastern side of this bay there is an inner harbour or carenage which is almost entirely surrounded by hills, and in which it is said 100 large ships can be moored. Adjoining this inner harbour is a large round basin, which is separated from it by a bank of sand, and which could also contain a great number of vessels if the bank were cut through, and the bottom of the basin—which, unlike that of the bay and harbour, is composed of a muddy substance—dredged. In the last century it was contemplated to convert this basin into a dock for the use of the Royal Navy—a purpose for which competent authorities have pronounced it admirably adapted. The project, however, was never carried out.

The island of Grenada, being out of "the line of hurricanes," which from time to time devastate its neighbours and cause immense damage to shipping, and the bay and harbour of St. George being securely protected, it used to be resorted to as a haven of shelter by ships from other islands during the hurricane months. It is not so much resorted to at the present time, in consequence of the improvements that have been effected, and the great facilities and conveniences that are now afforded in neighbouring ports. St. George's Bay, however, still remains the safest and snuggest of the ports in the Windward Islands, and with some improvements in the way of erecting piers and dredging, could be made *the* harbour of the Lesser Antilles. The necessary operations (according to the Report of the Royal Commissioners who visited the island in 1883) could be carried out at a cost of about £5,000.

The town of St. George (which is now the seat of the Government of the Windward Islands) is built on the two sides of the ridge which separates the bay from the inner harbour. It covers an area of 102 acres, and contains a population of about 4,000 souls. This town has been described by the late Mr. Anthony Trollope in the following words: "It is more like a goodly English town than any other that I saw in any of the smaller British islands. The market-place also looks like a market-place, and there are shops in it in which trade is apparently carried on and money made." The town has much improved in appearance since Mr. Trollope wrote: "St. George is well watered. In 1836 a supply of water was introduced from a spring situated in the outskirts of the town. This supply was found to be inadequate in after years, owing chiefly to increased population, and in 1878 another supply was introduced from a stream situated about 5 miles from the town and 1,100 feet above sea-level. Water is now obtained by the shipping without any difficulty, and water services are laid down in many of the houses."

Besides the town of St. George there are other towns along the coast. These are named Charlotte Town (or Gouyave), St. Patrick (or Sauteurs), and Grenville (or La Baye). The names in brackets were those by which the towns were known during the French occupation of the island. Another town is about to be constituted on the coast between Charlotte Town and St. Patrick. Charlotte Town was originally laid out by the French. Grenville is situated inside a fine harbour, the entrance to which, unfortunately, is almost completely barred by a belt of reefs. Vessels are forced to go through narrow channels between the reefs to get into the harbour. This town formerly was only a shipping bay; but of late it has made rapid strides, and now ranks second in area and importance to St. George. The other towns have also been greatly improved in recent years.

Grenada is divided into six parishes. Carriaiou—the largest of a chain of islands between Grenada and St. Vincent, known as the Grenadines—is attached to the Government of Grenada, and ranks as a parish, making the parishes seven in all. This island has an area of over 8,000 acres, and a population of about 5,000 souls.

From the most authentic accounts the island of Grenada was discovered by Columbus in his third voyage in 1498, and named Ascension by him. Like the other islands of the Caribbean Group, it was inhabited by a people of warlike habits denominated Caribs (or Charaibes). It does not appear that the Spaniards made any attempt to form a settlement on the island, and the natives were left in peaceful possession until the year 1638, when Poincy, a Frenchman, attempted to make a settlement on it. Poincy was, however, driven off by the Caribs, who, it is said, resorted to the island in greater numbers than they did to the neighbouring ones, attracted no doubt by its fertility and great loveliness—attributes the place enjoys to the present day.

In 1650 du Parquet, Governor of the French Colony of Martinique, projected its subjugation, and for that purpose proceeded to the island with 200 followers. The expedition was furnished with presents, in the shape of knives, toys, &c., to reconcile the savages, and was fully equipped with arms to subdue them in case they should prove intractable, or assume the attitude that had driven off the expedition of Poincy. Du Parquet, it

appears, did not experience much difficulty in effecting a landing. Old French writers state that the chief of the resident Caribs not only accorded a friendly welcome to the newcomers, but in consideration of "some knives and hatchets, and a large quantity of glass beads, besides two bottles of brandy for the chief himself," yielded to du Parquet the sovereignty of the place.

Du Parquet, returning to Martinique, left a kinsman of his named Le Compte to govern the island; and not satisfied with the easy conquest he had made, he sent a reinforcement of 300 men to Le Compte, and orders to extirpate the natives, who it seems had commenced to show dissatisfaction with their new masters. Le Compte, from all accounts, must have been just the man to carry out these instructions to the letter; for a few months after the receipt of his orders, he was engaged in a bloody struggle with the Caribs, who, unable to cope with their antagonists in the appliances of war, resorted to murdering those of the French settlers who happened to fall into their hands. The result of this struggle was the complete defeat of the Caribs, and their ultimate extermination in a somewhat romantic manner. Reduced to a comparatively small number, the Caribs were driven to the northern part of the island, where they were hemmed in on the brow of a lofty cliff overhanging the sea. Here they made a final and noble resistance; but they were outnumbered and reduced to about forty in number. These, unable to offer further resistance, leaped into the sea, preferring to die among the breakers than surrender to their cruel persecutors. In connection with this event du Tetre (one of the earliest writers on the West Indies) relates the following pathetic incident: "A beautiful girl, of twelve or thirteen years of age, who was taken alive, became the object of dispute between two of our (French) officers, each of them claiming her as his lawful prize; a third, coming up, put an end to the combat by shooting the girl through the head."

The place from which the remnant of the Caribs of Grenada threw themselves into the sea was called "*Le Morne des Sauteurs*" (the Hill of the Leapers), a name it has retained to the present day. The French having now become the sole possessors, and having got rid of all the natives, proceeded to quarrel amongst themselves. Du Parquet, disgusted and ruined by the expense which it had cost him to subdue the island and to maintain order in it, transferred possession in 1656 to the Count de Cerillac for 30,000 crowns. The new proprietor sent thither a man of "brutal manners" to govern the island, who behaved with such unbearable tyranny to the inhabitants that many of them retired to Martinique, and the few who remained condemned him to death after a formal trial. He was shot on the summit of a hill on the road over the Grand Etang mountain in the centre of the island. Some years after this the Count de Cerillac conveyed his rights and interest in Grenada to the French West Indian Company, whose charter being abolished in 1674, it became vested in the Crown of France.

The calamities which had attended this unfortunate colony may naturally be supposed to have prevented its prosperity, and by the accounts given by Raynal (another early writer) we find that in the year 1700, the white inhabitants amounted only to 251, with 525 blacks, who were employed on three sugar, and 52 indigo plantations. From this period, however, a measure of prosperity seems gradually to have taken place; and although

the colonists were abandoned by the French Government to the rapacity of tax-gatherers whose oppressive exactions almost ruined the cultivation of the chief staple product, tobacco, they, by a smuggling intercourse which they found means of carrying on in this article with the Dutch, increased in wealth and prosperity.

In 1762 Grenada surrendered on capitulation to Great Britain, and was ceded to that power by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. Its produce was then 11,000 hogsheads of muscovado sugar, of 15 cwt. each, and about 27,000 lbs. of indigo. A duty of 4½ per cent. upon all exported produce was ordered to be levied, in place of all customs and duties formerly paid to the French king. This measure gave rise to a great constitutional question, in which, after a long and elaborate discussion, judgment was given by Lord Mansfield against the Crown; and the duty was abolished in Grenada and the other ceded islands.

The island was recaptured in 1779 by a strong French force under the Count D'Estaing, who, with a large fleet and 3,000 men, attacked the small garrison, consisting of 90 men of the 48th regiment, assisted by 300 militia, and 150 seamen. After a defence, conducted in person by the Governor of the island, Sir George (afterwards Lord) Macartney, who subsequently became ambassador to China, and which reflected the highest credit upon the defenders, they were obliged to yield to numbers.

The line of policy afterwards adopted by the new Government towards the British inhabitants was oppressive and unjust. Their grievances were partially redressed by the French Government at home. In 1783, at the general pacification, the island was restored to the British Government, to which it has since remained an appanage.

When the constitution and a representative legislature were given by Great Britain to Grenada in 1765, privileges were granted to the French inhabitants which were denied to British-born subjects professing the same faith, the most prominent of which were their admission into the Legislative Council, and to be elected into the Assembly, to the limited number of two in the former and three in the latter—without taking or subscribing to the test; to hold commissions in the militia, and to be appointed in the commission of the peace. This apparent partiality, which was no doubt meant by the British Government as a conciliatory boon to the new subjects, naturally gave offence to the English inhabitants, and to those who had become purchasers of property in the island. The new subjects were, however, supported by party, and continued to enjoy their favours until the taking of the colony by the French in 1779; and upon the final cession of the island in 1783, they were, by General Matthew's instruction, placed upon the same footing as on the day of the capture by the French. It would appear, however, that the gracious intentions of the Government were carefully concealed from them; and a struggle commenced between the parties which continued for seven years from 1784, when the strongest prevailing, the new adopted subjects were divested of all political rights, their reliance on the enjoyment of which had probably induced their remaining in the Colony. "Their churches and glebe lands were taken possession of and appropriated to the use of the Established Church, and to the Government. These remote causes of the estrangement of the interests and affections of the French subjects from the British Government, combined with the machinations of the French revolutionary anarchists,

fomented and matured an insurrection, which broke out on the 2nd of March, 1795, accompanied with horrors and massacres almost unexampled in the annals of civilised nations. At the period when this diabolical plot was ripe for explosion, an unaccountable sense of security seems to have possessed the executive Government. The militia were, *de facto*, unarmed, their arms being deposited in stores, and only served out at their periodical musters; and although the supreme Government had, contrary to the faith of promises, reduced the garrison to 300 men, 200 of whom were only effective at the period to which we allude, no steps were taken to embody the militia, and put the country under a prudent preparation for defence, notwithstanding repeated warnings given to the Governor by those who had received information of the conspiracy. The only measure resembling anything like precaution was the issuing of arms to the St. George's Regiment of Militia a few days before the breaking out of the rebellion, a measure which, trivial as it was, is supposed to have saved the town from destruction. The Lieutenant-Governor, a civilian, who by all accounts was more adapted for the duties of private life than to hold the reins of government of a remote colony at a period so critical, was so much off his guard at the moment of danger as to be enjoying the gratifications of a pleasure party on his estate, Paraclete, nearly twenty miles from the seat of Government. In this situation of affairs the rebellion broke out, as has already been stated, upon the 2nd of March, 1795, at two opposite points of the island, the towns of Grenville and Gouyave or Charlotte Town. At the former the most bloody and inhuman tragedy was enacted. The inhabitants, surprised in their sleep at the hour of midnight, were remorselessly put to death with circumstances of brutal cruelty too horrible to describe. At Gouyave the miscreants contented themselves with taking the inhabitants prisoners, and driving them in a state almost of nudity to the estate of Julien Fedon, their assumed leader, situated in the heights in the centre of the island. The Governor, in attempting to reach town by water, was, by some strange and unaccountable fatality, induced to land at Gouyave; and with the Hon. Alexander Campbell, a man of great talent and weight in the Colony, captured by the rebels and conducted to their camp in the mountains. Our space would not admit of our entering into a detail of measures whose only prominent feature was imbecility, and by which the whole Colony (with the exception of the capital) was abandoned to the mercy of these unprincipled brigands for a space of nearly fifteen months; during which period the finest properties in the island were desolated by fire and blood. Most of the ill-concocted attempts to check the progress of the banditti ended in defeat, and in still further exposing the unhappy victims of republican ferocity to horrors unequalled in any other state of society; aggravated by party rancour, and a mixture of religious and atheistical frenzy.

"On the failure of an ill-concerted attempt to storm the camp of the rebels on the 8th of April, 1795, their unfortunate prisoners, consisting of the Lieutenant-Governor and forty-seven other British subjects, among whom were some of the principal inhabitants, were barbarously shot by the rebels.

"At last, after an unaccountable delay on the part of the British Ministry, increased by an untoward detention of the elements, a fleet arrived for the relief of the distressed colonies, a strong detachment from

which was landed in Grenada, on the 9th of June, 1796, under the command of the renowned Sir Ralph Abercrombie, by whose judicious directions, although he could not be present at their execution, the brigands were driven from their last hold in the mountains, on the 19th of the same month."*

In 1787 Grenada was honoured with a visit from H.R.H. Prince William Henry, Duke of Clarence, who subsequently came to the throne as William IV. His Royal Highness was at the time of his visit an officer on board the frigate *Solebay*. The members of the Council and Assembly waited upon his Royal Highness and presented him with a joint address, to which he replied in most courteous and encouraging terms. One remark from this reply will show the estimation in which the island was held at the time by the mother country: "An island the first to be attacked in war on account of her riches and the harbour she possesses, and which affords so much shelter in the hurricane months." †

As the limits of this article will not permit us to give in detail the history of the island subsequent to the insurrection in 1795, we must confine ourselves to giving a list of the principal events that have occurred since, in chronological order, by which an accurate outline of the history of later years will be afforded:

1832.—Act passed removing all disabilities from the free, coloured, and black inhabitants, and enabling Roman Catholics to serve in the Assembly.

1833.—Commission issued to Sir Lionel Smith constituting him Governor of Barbados, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Tobago, and Lieutenant-Governors appointed for each island.

1834.—Negro slavery abolished and apprenticeship system commenced.

1836.—Supply of water introduced into town of St. George from the "Springs," under the direction of Mr. Alexander McCombie.

1838.—Apprenticeship system ceased on the 1st of August, and slaves emancipated.

1854.—Act passed regulating election of members of Assembly. The House to consist of 26 members (11 to form a quorum), and to be elected for seven years. Cholera epidemic occurred; deaths estimated at 5,000. Military withdrawn.

1856.—Executive Council formed, composed of members selected by the Crown from the Legislative Council and House of Assembly. Not found to answer, and the Act allowed to expire at the end of three years, for which it was passed.

1875.—Single Chamber Bill passed the Assembly.

1876.—His Excellency John Pope Hennessy, Governor in-Chief, called the Assembly together and informed them that the Act to abolish their own body which they had passed by their "own deliberate act," had received the royal assent. "Lords and Commons" abolished accordingly.

1877.—Grenada proclaimed a Crown Colony.

1878.—Supply of water introduced into the town of St. George from the river Soulier by Mr. Osbert Chadwick, C.E.

1880.—Their Royal Highnesses Princes Albert Victor Christian Edward

* McCombie's 'Grenada Almanac and Public Register,' 1836.

† The address and reply are given at length in Davis's 'Practical Summary of the Constitution of Grenada.'

and George Frederick Ernest Albert (sons of the Prince of Wales) visited the Colony in H.M.S. *Bacchante.*

1883.—Commission appointed by Her Majesty the Queen "to make diligent and due inquiry into the public revenue, expenditure, debt, and liabilities" of each of the islands of Jamaica, Grenada, St. Vincent, Tobago, St. Lucia, and of the Leeward Islands, visited Grenada.

1885.—The islands of Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, and Tobago, constituted by Royal Letters Patent into a separate Government, under the style of the "Government of the Windward Islands." Walter Joseph Sendall, Esq., appointed the first Governor of the new Government.

The present political Constitution of Grenada consists of—

1. A Governor, who is appointed by commission under sign manual and signet of Her Majesty the Queen. (The Governor of Grenada is also Governor-in-Chief of the other islands comprising the Windward Group—namely, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and Tobago, and their dependencies).

2. An Executive Council, which at present consists of the Governor (or, in his absence, the officer administering the government of the Colony), the Colonial Secretary, the Treasurer, the Attorney-General, and a principal member of the community (not being a Government official).

3. A Legislative Council, consisting of the Governor, the Government officials enumerated in the foregoing paragraph, and such other persons as may be appointed by the Governor with the approval of Her Majesty.

The functions and privileges of the Governor and the Executive and Legislative Councils can be ascertained by reference to the Letters Patent of the Queen dated 17th March, 1885, constituting the Government of the Windward Islands. Up to that period, and since 1833, the island, with Barbados, St. Vincent, and Tobago—and St. Lucia after 1838—formed what was called the "Government of Barbados and the Windward Islands," the acts of its Lieutenant-Governor being subject to the approval or disapproval of the Governor-in-Chief, whose headquarters were at Barbados. Barbados is now governed separately, and the other islands comprise the "Government of the Windward Islands," with the Governor's chief residence at Grenada.

The present form of local government in Grenada is that known as the Crown Colony system. It succeeded the preceding Constitution in 1877. From February, 1876, to the end of 1877, the island possessed a Constitution that had been adopted by vote of the majority of the members of the preceding Legislature, consisting of a Lieutenant-Governor and a single Legislative Assembly, nine of the members of which were nominated by the Crown, and eight elected by the people. At the first meeting of the Assembly under this Constitution, an address to Her Majesty the Queen was adopted, informing Her Majesty that the Assembly had passed an Act providing for its own extinction, and leaving it entirely to Her Majesty's wisdom and discretion to erect such form of government as she might deem most desirable for the welfare of the Colony. The result of this appeal to the Throne was the inauguration in 1878 of the Constitution which exists at the present time, viz., Government by the Crown.

Prior to 1876 the Constitution of the island consisted of a Lieutenant Governor, a Legislative Council, and an Elective Assembly (the whole being in a sense analogous to the Sovereign, Lords and Commons of the mother country). The members of the Council were appointed by the Crown

from the Assembly. This form of government was inaugurated by Governor Melville in 1765. The Council consisted of not less than 7 members, and the Assembly of 26. With slight alteration, this Constitution was retained until the passing of the Act in 1875, alluded to above.

Under the provisions of a local enactment (No. 10 of 1882), the Court of Chancery and the Supreme Court in its various jurisdictions, as it existed before the passing of that measure, were united into one Supreme Court of Judicature for the Colony, to "be a superior Court of Record for the adjudication and trial of all matters and causes, civil and criminal, except causes or matters adjudicated or tried by the Vice-Admiralty Court of Grenada." Of the Supreme Court the Chief Justice of the island is the sole judge. The Court holds sittings frequently, and as the people in the Colony are particularly fond of going to law to settle their differences, it finds much to occupy its attention in its civil jurisdiction.

The island and its dependencies are divided into four police districts, denominated the southern, eastern, western and northern districts, which are each presided over by a police magistrate appointed by the Governor. The functions of these magistrates are to hear and adjudicate all police charges, and to discharge the ordinary duties of stipendiary magistrates, exercise jurisdiction in cases of debt up to £10, and prepare schedules of taxes on houses and lands within their respective districts. They also act as coroners.

The Chief Justice sitting in the Supreme Court exercises an appellate jurisdiction over all matters which are subject to the decision or adjudication of the police magistrates or justices of the peace. This Court is held six times in every year and is much resorted to. There is an Appeal Court for reviewing decisions from the Supreme Court of the Colony. This Court is called the Court of Appeal for the Windward Islands, and is composed of the Chief Justices of Barbados, St. Vincent, St. Lucia and Tobago. Sittings of this Court are fixed by Act for the months of January and July in each year, but the Governor is empowered to appoint and fix other periods.

The people of the island are, as a rule, law-abiding, and crime of a very heinous nature is not often heard of. Murder seldom occurs, and no execution of a Creole has taken place since the year 1856. Of course, there have been executions, but the condemned have all been East Indian immigrants whose jealous and savage dispositions have actuated them to commit a crime which is not seriously regarded among their own people.

The climate of Grenada is remarkably salubrious, and the temperature equable. These have won for the place the honour of being styled one of the healthiest and most desirable spots in the West Indian Group. The island enjoys an almost complete immunity from maladies which invariably attack persons going for the first time from the temperate to the tropic zone. The much-dreaded "yellow-jack" and other dangerous types of fever are seldom heard of in connection with the place. The death rate of the island in 1885, according to the last report of the Registrar-General, was 26 to every 1000 of the population. The number of deaths classed under the head of "zymotic diseases" (which includes those from fevers of all descriptions) in the same year was 163. Grenada is a great health-resort for residents in the neighbouring colony of

Trinidad. In addition to the health-restoring influence of its climate, it affords excellent sea-bathing, which adds to the attractions of invalids to its shores.

The commerce of the island is divided between the mother country, the United States, and the neighbouring islands. The bulk of its produce is sent to the English market; a small portion finds its way into the United States and France (sometimes to Venezuela). The sister island of Trinidad it supplies regularly with live stock, poultry, and ground provisions in large quantities, while it sends frequent cargoes of firewood to the woodless island of Barbados. The craft employed in the trade with the neighbouring islands are for the most part built at Carriacou. Bread-stuffs and salt provisions are obtained from the United States (sometimes *viâ* Barbados and Trinidad). Lumber comes in large and frequent cargoes from the United States. Owing to the increase of population, and, consequently, the erection of new houses and the renovation of old ones, there is at present a large demand for lumber. From the mother country the island obtains its woollens, fineries, ironmongery, &c. Of late years a trade in these branches has been springing up with the United States and Canada.

The prosperity of the island, like that of its neighbours, depends almost entirely upon agriculture. Unlike the other islands, however, it has long ceased to be a sugar producing colony, and consequently has not suffered so severely as they have from the depression caused by the depreciation in the value of cane sugar. There are very few sugar estates at present in cultivation, and these, there is every reason to expect, will be soon abandoned or devoted to other purposes. The greater portion of sugar manufactured at present in the island is used for local consumption.

The chief produce of Grenada is, and has been for some time, cocoa (or cacao). The soil and climate of the island seem peculiarly adapted to the production of this valuable plant—a fact which must have been known to the early settlers on the island, for trees more than 100 years old are to be found on some of the present plantations, and in some of the high lands, now uncultivated, stray trees are often met with. The tree is supposed to have been introduced into the island from South America. The consumption of chocolate has increased so largely in late years that considerable lands have been cleared and planted with the cocoa-tree with great advantage to the island. Last year about 5,500,000 lbs. of the product was exported (this figure is below that of recent years), but the falling off is due to unfavourable weather during the bearing season, and the consequent lateness of the crop; it nevertheless is a large quantity, and when compared with the shipments in 1875 (3,137,360 lbs.) and 1865 (1,263,743 lbs.), will show to what an extent the cultivation of the article has been carried.

Besides cocoa the inhabitants have been turning their attention with some success already to the cultivation of other economic plants, such, for instance, as nutmegs, cloves, vanilla, cardamoms, cocoanuts, &c. Attention is also being shown to the kola-nut—an African fruit said to contain a large proportion of caffeine. The tree exists in all parts of the island, and was introduced in years past by the African slaves, who used to regard it as a specific against intoxication. Some enterprising agriculturists are about to attempt to cultivate the tea plant in the island. At no distant

period, therefore, visitors may have the pleasure of enjoying tea made from locally produced "young Hyson" or "choice Souchong."

Tropical fruits of almost every description and of the finest quality are always abundant. "Grenada is," I think, "the headquarters in the world for fruit," says Mr. Trollope. The soil of the island is very fertile and capable of producing almost any tropical plant. Indeed, the writer of this article has seen fine apples, raspberries, strawberries and other northern fruit obtained from plantations in the higher lands.

The principal food resources are, under the head of vegetables—ground provisions (yams, sweet potatoes, tanias, kush-kush), pigeon-peas, plantains, Indian corn, cassava (a description of bread made from the root of the manioc plant), breadfruit, &c. Fresh meat (beef, mutton, pork, poultry), is frequently obtainable, and all the animals slaughtered for the purpose are reared in the island. Fish of the finest description are to be had daily, and cheap; while turtle—that luxury among luxuries—is more common than it is in many of the other islands. Game is scarce, but such as there is is much sought after. Opossums (*manican*), iguanas, agoutis, armadilloes (tattoe) are the only wild animals, and abound in the woods. Their flesh is used largely as food by the labourers. Ramiers and several other species of wild pigeon are procurable all the year round, and migratory birds, ducks, plovers, &c., abound at certain seasons.

Of the 76,653 acres estimated to be contained in the island about 17,000 are cultivated. Much of the uncultivated land is inaccessible. The forests abound in valuable timber (including bullet wood, locust, mahogany, white cedar, galba, &c.), and vanilla and several varieties of gum-yielding trees have lately been discovered to be indigenous. There is a tax of 1*s.* 6*d.* per acre on cultivated lands, and 6*d.* per acre on uncultivated.

The revenue of the Colony in 1885 was £56,968; and the expenditure £59,418. The revenue is raised chiefly on lands, houses, imports, &c.

In the days when the West Indies were—to use the words of the late Mr. Bryan Edwards—"the principal source of the national wealth and maritime power," Grenada was one of the most strongly fortified islands in the Caribbean Sea, and it often witnessed many a sharp encounter. In 1854, however, the military were removed from the island, and the fortifications have since been dismantled. The hills overlooking the bay and harbour of St. George possess no less than five forts—all built of stone. These now remain as so many monuments to departed glory, and, standing out as they do, in bold relief, cannot but catch the eye of the observer. Fort George, the principal of these structures, commands the entrance to the Carenage and it was built by the French in 1760. It is now used as a barrack for the police force. On eminences in various parts of the island are to be found the remains of small batteries. The police force is the only body the island now depends upon for protection. It numbers 57. External defence is seen to by ships of the Royal Navy.

The estimated population of the island (according to the latest report of the Registrar-General), was 46,425 at the end of the year 1885, showing an increase of about 5,900 in ten years. The island has not availed itself as largely as some of its neighbours have, of immigration from

the East Indies. The last batch of Indian immigrants arrived at the beginning of 1885 and numbered 164. There are only about 2,000 altogether in the island. Grenada being more prosperous, from an agricultural point of view, than many of the other islands, emigrants from Barbados, St. Vincent, &c., flock to it.

Education has been very much neglected in this promising island. Within late years, however, a good system of elementary schools has been inaugurated, and is working with comparative satisfaction. Last year (1885) a grammar school was established by some private persons, which has since been endowed by the Government, and promises great results.

GEOGRAPHY.

GRENADA lies 68 miles S.S.W. of St. Vincent, between 12° 30′ and 11° 58′ north latitude, and 61° 20′ and 61° 35′ west longitude. It is about 21 miles in length by 12 miles in extreme breadth, and has an area of 125 square miles. Some of the Grenadines are attached to the Government of Grenada. The island is mountainous and very picturesque, and has numerous streams and springs. The Grand Etang, a lake on the summit of a mountain ridge, 1,740 feet above sea level, and Lake Antoine, are the most remarkable natural curiosities. The valleys which occur here and there among the hills contain alluvial tracts of great fertility. St. George, the chief town, on the south-west coast, possesses a good harbour.

TOBAGO.

ADMINISTRATOR AND COLONIAL SECRETARY,
R. BAXTER LLEWELYN.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. J. W. CARRINGTON, D.C.L.

ACTING CHIEF JUSTICE,
C. J. CHOPPIN.

ACTING ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
S. JAMES FRASER.

TREASURER,
L. G. HAY.

MARSHAL,
S. F. TITZCK.

TOBAGO.

TOBAGO is situated in 11° 9′ N. Latitude and 60° 43′ W. Longitude, and lies about 120 miles distant from Barbados, about 75 from Grenada, and about 20 from Trinidad. The island is 26 miles in length and 7½ at its greatest breadth; its area being 114 square miles. It is well watered by rivulets and streams, rising in the interior; these in the dry season are comparatively small and are all easily fordable, but after heavy rains many of them become swollen to the size of rivers. None of them are navigable, even for a small boat. To the N.E. of Tobago and about a mile from the coast is a small island called Little Tobago, a dependency of the Colony, which is now uncultivated and uninhabited; it contains about 240 acres.

With the exception of about seven miles of level land, a great part of which is now in wood, on the western extremity of the island, the country generally is hilly, or may even be described as mountainous. The sugar cane is at present the staple article of cultivation, but the soil is capable of raising any inter-tropical production in perfection, such as cotton, coffee, cocoa, indigo, spices, &c. Attention has of late years been turned to the cultivation (but on a small scale) of cocoa and coffee; and cocoa-nuts have recently been exported in considerable quantities. All tropical fruits, and most English vegetables, grow well in the island.

The period at which Tobago was discovered is a point on which history is very uncertain. The islands of Trinidad and Grenada were discovered by Columbus in the year 1498, and as they are both within sight of Tobago, it is not unreasonable to suppose that this island was discovered by him in the same year. There is also some uncertainty as to the aboriginal inhabitants of the island, but it is more than probable that from time to time Caribs from the neighbouring islands visited Tobago, although it does not appear that they made any permanent settlement there.

Tobago was visited by British navigators as early as the year 1580, when the English flag was first planted on the island, which was at that time uninhabited, and its history, as will be seen from the following pages, has been an exceedingly eventful one.

In the year 1608 the sovereignty of the island was claimed by King James I.; but the first attempt at a settlement was made in 1625 by some Englishmen from Barbados, most of whom were attacked and killed by the Indians then in the Island. Charles I., who claimed a right to the island, made a grant of it to William, Earl of Pembroke, in the year 1628; this nobleman did not, however, carry into execution his design of settling it. In 1632 a party of between two and three hundred persons from Flessingen

arrived in Tobago; they found the island uninhabited, and their attempt to found a Colony, which they named New Walcheren, was unsuccessful, for within a year of their arrival they were expelled by a party of Spaniards and Indians from Trinidad.

It was not until the year 1642 that another attempt at a settlement was made, and this was undertaken by the Duke of Courland, the ruler of an independent State on the Baltic, who sent two large ships for this purpose. The Courlanders chose a spot on the northern coast at a place which still retains the name of Courland Bay; they succeeded in forming a settlement, although they would appear to have had many difficulties to contend with. A second Dutch expedition was, in the year 1654, equipped by Adrian and Cornelius Lampsius, two merchants of Flushing, the result being that a large number of persons arrived in Tobago, and settled on the southern coast. The relations between the two settlements continued to be amicable until the year 1658, when the Dutch attacked and subdued the Courlanders.

About this period the French made a claim to the island by including it among the territories granted to their West India Company. The Dutch settlers from Flushing, in order to strengthen their title, obtained in 1662 a grant of the island from Louis XIV. of France, and a surrender from the French West India Company of their alleged right thereto. Adrian Lampsius procured from Louis letters-patent creating him Baron of Tobago; and he sent out M. Hubert de Beveren as Governor, under whose administration the Colony flourished and fortifications were erected. Tobago, however, was not destined to remain long in peace. In 1664 the Duke of Courland, who had been a prisoner in the hands of Charles Gustavus, King of Sweden, was released. He lost no time in demanding the restitution of Tobago, which was refused by the Dutch; the Duke thereupon applied to Charles II. of England for assistance, and received from him a grant of the island on condition that none should inhabit it but the subjects of England and of the grantee, the Duke of Courland. In 1666 an expedition consisting of four vessels was fitted out from England at the expense of some private individuals; the island was taken after a slight resistance, and the Dutch Commandant and his garrison, consisting of one hundred and fifty men, were made prisoners of war. It should here be mentioned that in this year Tobago was the scene of a victory obtained by Admiral Sir John Harnian over the combined Dutch and French fleets, which had made it their rendezvous.

The English did not long enjoy their conquest undisturbed, for in a few months they were attacked and driven out by the French, who soon after abandoned their conquest, and the Dutch renewed their attempts at a settlement. In 1673 the English in their turn, under the command of Sir Tobias Bridges, made an attack on Tobago, took it from the Dutch, and brought away four hundred prisoners and as many negroes.

The Netherlands, however, shortly afterwards again effected a lodgement in Tobago; but in 1677 the French, under the Count d'Estrées, made an unsuccessful attempt to take the island from them. Later in the same year another French expedition, on a much larger scale, was despatched from France; and the French on this occasion were successful, but again abandoned the island, which was restored to the Dutch, in 1679, by the treaty of Nimeguen, who do not appear to have made further attempts to colonize it. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1684, Tobago was declared neutral.

The French and English, nevertheless, appear to have advanced claims, from time to time, to a right to make settlements on the island.

A long break in the frequent sequence of hostilities and settlements now takes place, and we hear nothing further of Tobago until the reign of George II., when the attempted colonization of the island by France took place. Eighteen years after this, the island again fell into the hands of England, during the war, and by the treaty of Paris, in 1762, was again surrendered to England. The government formed another plan of colonization in 1764, and Tobago was included in the Grenada government; the other islands comprehended within that government being the Grenadines, Dominica, and St. Vincent. The legal existence of Tobago as a British Colony may be said to have begun at this date. The first Lieutenant Governor of Tobago was Mr. Alexander Browne, who landed at King's Bay on 12th November, 1764.

An important proclamation was issued in this year regarding the sale of lands in Tobago. The Commissioners named in this proclamation received certain instructions as to the division of the island into parishes, the setting apart of lands in convenient situations for fortifications and other purposes, and the manner in which the lots should be laid out for sale, with particulars regarding terms of sale and the obligations of the purchaser. The lands sold under this proclamation, exclusive of certain reserved portions, amounted to 57,408 acres, which produced £154,058 19*s.*, being an average of £2 13*s.* 8*d.* per acre. The first record of land sold by the Crown bears date 20th March, 1766; the grant, in this case, was made by Governor Melville to James Simpson, and it consisted of 500 acres of Lot 1 at Courland Bay. The idea of founding a town in every parish, which was part of the original programme, was not carried out. Georgetown, in Barbados Bay, was the first town established, and there it was that the first session of the Legislative Council and Assembly was opened on the 16th April, 1768; Scarborough, however, seems to have been considered a more suitable Capital, for the legislative sittings were thereto transferred in the following year. There are, at the present day, hardly any traces of the existence of Georgetown.

On the 2nd March, 1771, General Melville was succeeded in the general government by Mr. William L. Leyborne. Dominica, it should here be mentioned, no longer formed a part of that government, having been separated from it and formed into a distinct government. Two insurrections of the slaves took place in this year, but they were speedily suppressed by the Militia, which would appear to have been a well organised force at this period. That these insurrections must have had a brutalizing effect on the public mind is sufficiently attested by an event recorded in a chronological table in William Mathieson's Tobago Almanac of 1849; the record runs as follows:—

"1774. Seven slaves were executed at one time. Their right arms were chopped off; they were then dragged to seven stakes and burnt to death; one of them, named Chubb, stretched out his arm on the block, and coolly pulled up his sleeve; he would not be drawn, but walked to the stake. One man named Sampson was hung alive in chains, and was seven days dying; their crimes were murder and destroying property."

In 1775 the cultivation of the sugar cane was generally abandoned for that of cotton; this was due to the ravages of a destructive species of ant

which, appearing first in the windward parishes, soon spread over the whole country and completely destroyed the canes.

Governor Leyborne died in St. Vincent on the 16th April, 1775, and was succeeded by Sir George, afterwards Lord, Macartney, who on the 7th February, 1776, was appointed Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of Grenada, the Grenadines, and Tobago; the island of St. Vincent, as in the case of Dominica in 1771, being formed into a separate government. The population of Tobago was, at this period, about 2,300 whites, 1,050 free people of colour, and 10,800 slaves. In the early part of 1778, an armament was fitted out by the American States, then in their early days of independence, having for its object the conquest of Tobago. A short engagement ensued, which resulted in the blowing up of one of the American vessels; the rest of the squadron escaping.

In the year 1779, Mr. George Ferguson was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Tobago; his predecessors in office, since Lieutenant-Governor Browne, having successively been Lieutenant-Governors R. Gwyne, William Stewart, William Young, Peter Campbell, and John Graham.

Tobago, after a most gallant defence by the Colonists, led by Lieutenant-Governor Ferguson, was conquered in 1781 by a superior French force, under the command of the Marquis de Bouille, and the island, by the Treaty signed at Paris on 3rd September, 1783, was ceded to the French Crown. The constitution and the laws of the Colony do not appear to have been much changed under the French rule, and the proceedings of the Courts of Justice continued as before. In this year (1784) Scarborough was first represented in the House of Assembly. In the year 1790 a mutiny broke out among the French soldiers, the result being that the town of Scarborough was burnt down. A more general calamity occurred in August of the same year, when a tremendous hurricane swept over the island and did great damage.

On the 15th April, 1793, Tobago became again an English dependency; this being effected by a British Force under Admiral Sir John Lefroy and Major-General Cuyler. The island was formed into a separate government under a Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief, with a Legislative Council appointed by the Crown, and a Representative House termed the General Assembly. On the 6th January, 1794, the new Governor-in-Chief, Mr. George Poyntz Ricketts, assumed the Government; he was, however, appointed Governor of Barbados in the following year, and was succeeded in Tobago by Mr. William Lindsay. This gentleman's tenure of office was also of short duration, as he died on the 22nd May, 1796. Governor Stephen De Lancy followed Mr. Lindsay, but, dying in 1799, was succeeded in the following year by Mr. Richard Masters.

By the treaty of Amiens, Tobago, in the year 1802, was once more surrendered to the French, and General Sabuguet was appointed Governor, arriving in the island on 2nd October, 1802. Napoleon had determined not to change the constitution or laws of the Colony, and the new French Governor, in announcing this fact to the Council and Assembly, soothed the minds and dispelled the fears of the inhabitants, who by no means approved of being transferred to France, and were anxious as to the future. General Sabuguet, for the short time that he governed the island, seems to have made himself very popular with the Colonists, as they not only granted him the annual salary of his English predecessors (£3,300), but voted him

the sum of £4,000 as a gift; this latter the General did not live to enjoy, but it was bestowed upon his widow. It may here be mentioned that Tobago took a part in the decision of the question whether Bonaparte should be elected Consul for life; the Council and Assembly having, on the 25th November, 1802, returned the votes of the inhabitants unanimously in favour of the proposal.

After various vicissitudes of ownership, in the year 1803, war having broken out afresh between England and France, Tobago became once more a bone of contention. A British naval and military force, under the command of Commodore Hood and General Grinfield, invaded the island on the 30th June. They met with little resistance; the Governor, General Cæsar Berthier, consenting to capitulate on condition that his feeble garrison, consisting of some two hundred soldiers and sailors, should be allowed to return to France. Tobago from this period has remained in the undisturbed possession of the English; it having been, by the Treaty of Paris, 1814, finally ceded to Great Britain.

A violent contagious fever made its appearance at Fort King George in the close of 1820, and proved fatal to a number of officers and soldiers; it afterwards extended to the inhabitants, several of whom fell victims to its malignant effects.

In 1833 Tobago ceased to form a separate Government, and was included in that of the Windward Islands; Barbados, Grenado, and St. Vincent being the other islands within the general command; St. Lucia was added in 1838. The year 1834 was a memorable one for all the West Indian Colonies. On the 1st August the Emancipation of the slaves, an event which had long been pending, became an accomplished fact. The apprenticeship system, under which the old slaves were bound to their former owners for four or six years, according as they were non-prædial or prædial labourers, came into force; but it did not apply to children under six years of age, who were freed unconditionally. In 1842 the diocese of Barbados and the Leeward Islands was divided into three Bishoprics; these were the diocese of Barbados, which comprised Barbados, Trinidad, Grenada, St. Vincent, Tobago, and St. Lucia; that of Antigua, comprising Antigua, Montserrat, Christopher, Nevis, and the Virgin Islands; and the diocese of British Guiana, which comprised Demerara, Essequebo, and Berbice. The three rectories in Tobago were established by a local Act of the 26th February, 1844.

On the night of the 11th October, 1847, a most disastrous hurricane swept over the island. There had been no serious calamity of the kind since the year 1790; the inhabitants, therefore, deemed themselves comparatively secure from such visitations, and accordingly very little apprehension was felt at the early indications of the coming storm, and little or no preparations were made to face the danger. The first outbreak is said to have been preceeded by an earthquake, and a tremendous thunderstorm raged during the continuance of the gale. The value of private property destroyed has been computed at nearly £150,000.

In the month of January, 1854, the troops stationed at Fort King George were withdrawn from the island; the Colonists being left to themselves in the matters of defence and the preservation of peace and order. The Home Goverment promised that a vessel of war should be constantly within call of Barbados, should its services be at any time

required. The departure of the troops necessarily led to the augmentation of the Police Force. The force so augmented, by a local Act passed on the 11th January, 1854, consisted of an inspector-general, a superintending serjeant, two serjeants, six corporals, and twenty-four privates. An Act was also passed at this time to legalize the embodiment of Volunteer Corps.

An important change took place in the Government of the Colony in the year 1855, when the constitution was remodelled by a local Act entitled "An Act for the better government of this Island," which was passed on 9th February, 1855. This Act provided for the establishment of an Executive Committee, which should consist of one member of the Legislative Council, and two members of the Elective Legislative Assembly, selected by the Lieutenant-Governor, and holding office during pleasure. In April, 1861, a census of the island was taken, and the number of inhabitants was found to be 15,410.

Another Act of considerable importance was passed in 1874, having for its object the remodelling of the Constitution; it was commonly called the Single Chamber Act, and its date was 14th September, 1874. By its provisions the somewhat cumbrous legislative machinery of the Colony was simplified, the two Legislative Houses which then existed being abolished, and in their place one Legislative Assembly was established. This Assembly consisted of six members nominated by the Government, and eight elected members, one chosen by the town of Scarborough, and one by each of the seven parishes; the qualification of the electors remaining as before. The Privy Council was continued; but the Executive Committee was reduced to two members, one a nominee member of the Assembly, and the other an elected member.

The Constitution as thus remodelled did not long remain in force, being altered two years later by the Constitution Act dated 6th December, 1876. This Act, which was ratified by the Imperial Act, 39 & 40 Vict. cap. 47, altered the political constitution of the Government by abolishing the Legislative Assembly, and leaving it to the Queen in Council to create and constitute a Legislature in such form and with such power as might seem fitting.

The Colonial Office Regulations describe a Crown Colony as a Colony "in which the Crown has the entire control of legislation, while the administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the Home Government." Such a Colony is Tobago. It is one of the islands comprehended in the General Government of the Windward Islands; the other islands within that government being Grenada, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia.

The Windward Islands are governed by a Governor and Commander-in-Chief; His Excellency Walter J. Sendall is the present holder of that office, his head-quarters being Grenada. All Ordinances—the laws of Tobago are so styled—passed in the island are forwarded to the Governor-in-Chief for his assent, and they are likewise subject to the Royal approval, disallowance, or other direction thereon.

The Executive Council of the Colony consists of the following *ex-officio* members:—

The Administrator, the Attorney-General and the Treasurer, and of such other persons as Her Majesty may from time to time appoint. At present only one such person has been so appointed, viz., the senior un-

official member of the Legislative Council. It is the duty of the Executive Council to advise the Governor on all questions submitted for consideration by him; the Council is of the nature of a Privy Council.

The Legislative Council consists of the Administrator, the Attorney-General, the Treasurer, and such other persons as the Queen may appoint; there are at present three persons so appointed, who are un-official members of the Council. All laws, votes, resolutions, or questions affecting the revenue of the Colony, can only be proposed with the sanction of the Governor; subject to this provision it is competent for any member to propose any question for debate.

In the early part of May, 1876, riots occurred in the Windward District, but were speedily suppressed. The riots led to the reorganization of the Police Force, which was increased in numbers, and made a semi-military body. A Volunteer Corps was also organized, consisting of two companies, one for Scarborough, and the other for the Windward District.

Tobago is divided into seven parishes: they are St. David, St. Patrick, St. Andrew, St. George, St. Mary, St. Paul, and St. John. It was originally proposed to found a town in every parish; but this idea, being discovered to be ill-suited to the condition of the Colony, was early abandoned, and there are but two towns in the island, Scarborough and Plymouth. Scarborough, formerly called Port Louis, the principal town, is on the south side of the island, about eight miles from the south-western point and eighteen from the north-eastern extremity; it is prettily situated at the south-western base of a hill, which attains a height of four hundred and twenty-two feet above the level of the sea. On this hill stand the fortifications and buildings of Fort King George, which is now without a garrison. The town is built close to the shore of Rockly Bay: its general appearance is marred by the ruined and dilapidated condition of a considerable number of houses in its streets. Plymouth, the other town, is on the north side of the island, distant about five miles from Scarborough; it is a place of no importance, in fact is little more than a village, with 767 inhabitants.

The population has not increased to any great extent within the last thirty years, as will be shown by the subjoined table:—

Year.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1851	6,949	7,429	14,378
1861	7,433	7,977	15,401
1871	8,262	8,792	17,054
1881	8,694	9,357	18,051

This small increase is attributable to the high rate of infant mortality, and to the fact that great numbers of the labouring classes go to the neighbouring Colony of Trinidad, where labour is, or is supposed by them to be, better paid; many of these emigrants never returning to Tobago.

The religion of the population according to the last census was—Church of England, 8,865; Roman Catholics, 13; Wesleyans, 4,016; Moravians, 4,612; Presbyterians, 11; others, 534.

The principal characteristics, good and bad, of the negro race are perhaps common to the descendants of Africans in all the West Indian Islands; but the Tobago negro possesses some good points which are deserving of especial notice. Among these should be mentioned his habits of sobriety; one may reside many months in the island without ever meeting with a drunken black man; and this, considering the cheapness of

rum, and the facilities afforded to the negroes for obtaining that spirit, speaks volumes in their favour. Crimes of a serious nature are also, happily, of rare occurrence, which may not be hard to account for, when we consider that probably more than one-half of the crime in the civilized world is the outcome of strong drink. In respect of morality, Tobago is certainly no better than the neighbouring islands, over 60 per cent. of the population being illegitimate. This evil may be attributed to the effects of slavery, in the days of which the increase of the negro population was encouraged without much regard to, what was doubtless then considered, the inconvenient formality of marriage.

The English language is universally spoken in the island, although a new-comer will probably have some difficulty in understanding the dialect of the labouring classes; their vocabulary being extremely limited, and their mode of pronunciation peculiar.

The only means of communication within the island are the public roads, and by boat for places along the coast; the rivers, as before stated, are unnavigable. The roads, which compare very favourably with those of the other West Indian Islands, are as a rule not well adapted for carriages, so that the means of locomotion are practically limited to riding and walking. Riding-horses can be hired by the day or for longer periods, the charges varying from 5*s.* to 8*s.* per day. Boats can also be hired, the charge depending upon the distance of the journey, and the time occupied in performing it.

Perhaps one of the greatest obstacles to the advancement of Tobago as a Colony has been its unfortunate state of isolation; it is one of the very few West Indian Colonies that are not in cable communication with the outer world. In the matter of tonnage, too, the island has been very much neglected; the subjoined table, which gives the number of vessels entered and cleared in the last seven years, shows that of late things have improved materially in this respect; this is owing to a wise amendment of the Tonnage Dues Ordinance which was lately effected. Previously the dues that are now payable on sailing vessels were likewise charged on all steamers (those of the Royal Mail line excepted), with the result that no freight steamers ever came to Tobago, the dues being, in effect, prohibitory; now that they have been altered steamers no longer shun the island.

Year.	Number of Vessels Entered.	Number of Tons.	Number of Crews.	Number of Vessels Cleared.	Number of Tons.	Number of Crews.
1876	123	6,654	597	120	6,899	599
1877	110	6,573	552	108	6,500	532
1878	124	5,530	661	124	5,399	659
1879	108	5,576	491	108	5,576	491
1880	134	6,901	721	129	7,603	771
1881	145	7,788	779	146	8,093	811
1882	151	26,837	2,247	143	23,676	2,116
1883	151	59,360	2,574	123	39,616	1,500
1884	145	59,711	2,448	130	47,859	1,934

Communication is carried on between Barbados and Tobago by means of schooners, which ply regularly between the two islands; these vessels

are the property of local merchants; there are also other small crafts that occasionally run between Trinidad and Tobago.

The sugar-cane, as has been mentioned, is at present the staple article of cultivation, and it is so to the neglect, if not the exclusion, of other tropical products, such as cocoa, coffee, spices, &c. This circumstance must be considered a misfortune, for there can be little doubt that, had the planters in late years turned their attention to the cultivation of some other product (as was done with marked success in Grenada), the advantage to themselves and the island generally would have been very great. In former years cotton and indigo were cultivated; but those products were abandoned for sugar; which became more remunerative. The indigo formerly manufactured in the island is said to have been of very fine quality; remains of the vats used in the manufacture are still to be found on some of the estates; whether the plant is indigenous to the soil it is difficult to say, but it is to be found now everywhere in the island, and is, indeed, a very troublesome growth.

With regard to the cultivation and manufacture of sugar, there are for those purposes fifty-six estates in the island. Of the sugar-cane mills on these estates, twenty-four are worked by steam, six by steam and water, eleven by water, ten by wind, and five by cattle. All the estates are cultivated, more or less, on the Métayer system. There are thirty-two rum stills in Tobago, of which number only seventeen were in work in 1882. These stills are all situated on sugar estates.

It is very difficult to form a correct estimate of the area of cultivated land in the island, but of the 73,313 acres which it contains probably not more than 10,000, including provision grounds, are under cultivation. No doubt the chief reason why so much of the best land in the Colony is allowed to lie unproductive is the difficulty of access, in the absence of roads, to the interior of the island. The extent of the Crown lands, is unfortunately, a matter of uncertainty; there can be no question, of course, as to the lands which have never passed from the Crown; but besides these there is a large area of land whose proprietors, if any, are unknown and unrepresented in the Colony; such lands might long ago have been declared forfeited to the Crown, never having paid an impost for over 25 years. The acreage of these latter lands has been differently estimated by two local land surveyors at 15,160 and 13,000 acres, and probably the former estimate is the more correct.

The question of offering the Crown lands for sale, in small allotments, has been raised from time to time; but owing to differences of opinion among the local advisers of the Government, the idea has not yet been carried into execution. There may be reasons for and against such a scheme, but there can be no doubt as to the desirability of definitely settling the question of the situation and exact extent of all the Crown lands, and the sooner this is done the better it will be for the Colony. The price of land in Tobago varies according to its situation and other local circumstances. Land in the neighbourhood of settlements and villages fetches from £15 to £20 per acre, other lands from £10 to as low as £1 per acre. Certain it is, that comparing the value of land in Tobago with that of the neighbouring colonies, the former offers to the capitalist advantages which are by no means common to the latter; it must be confessed that, in spite of these advantages, there is but little disposition shown to acquire land in the

island; but this, probably, is as much due to ignorance of the capabilities and virgin richness of the soil as to any other cause.

It has already been said that labour and capital are both wanting in Tobago. There can be no doubt as to the latter want; but there are those who deny that there is a scarcity of labour in the island. It is not so much, perhaps, that labour is so scarce, but that it is not at all times available; and unfortunately it is often least available when most wanted. This is due to several causes, the chief of which, probably, lies in the fact that the planters, as a rule, allow their labourers practically as much provision ground as they may desire to cultivate; and as the growing of provisions is a profitable occupation, the labourer is apt to devote more time to it than the planter altogether approves; this is especially the case in the beginning of the rainy weather, which is the season for planting the canes. The labourer is, moreover, very independent; as he is perfectly well aware that, owing to there being no system of immigrant labour in operation in the island, he is master so to speak, of the situation. A project is now under consideration, for the introduction every year of a certain number of Barbadian labourers; the Government proposing to bear two-thirds, and the planter who employs the labourer one-third, of the cost of procuring him.

The horses of the island are hardy animals, and are fairly well adapted for the work required of them, but they lack bone, being as a rule small, and often weedy. Cattle are plentiful, and the mutton, though small, is well flavoured. Beef and mutton are obtainable in the market on certain days in the week, and in this respect the inhabitants of Scarborough are better off than their country neighbours, the meat supply of the latter being very limited and uncertain. Poultry and fish are abundant, and generally speaking the requirements of life are well provided for in Tobago.

Of the West Indian Colonies Tobago is certainly one of the most healthy. The lagoons and swamps which are so frequently met with in other tropical countries, and which form centres for miasmatic infection, are here few and of limited extent. The island, which possesses a sea-board very extensive when compared with its area, is almost constantly visited by cooling and invigorating sea breezes; and as hurricanes are of extremely rare occurrence,—none having visited the island since the year 1847,—little or no danger need be apprehended on that score. Epidemics of a serious nature are unknown. Yellow fever and cholera have not visited the island within the memory of man. Nothing, in fact, of an epidemic nature more dangerous than measles, influenza, shingles, and whooping-cough is ever met with; while the native fever is very seldom of a serious character. Adding to these facts, that there is an abundant supply of good water, simple and wholesome food, and most excellent fruit and vegetables; that the climate is not subject to any great or sudden variations of temperature; and that the rainfall is never excessive, there can be no doubt that any person who, with a sound constitution, gives it fair play by being temperate in all things, should have every chance of retaining his health and vigour.

Tobago is situated almost exactly on the circle of maximum heat, and its mean temperature for the year at the sea level is 81° Fahrenheit.

The maximum temperature for each month is fairly constant, but the minimum varies considerably with changes in the state of the atmosphere.

During heavy and prolonged rains, however, the maximum temperature may be reduced on any day or days as much as 8° below the average for that month. The temperature of the surface of the sea is practically a constant one, and never varies more than one degree from the average of 81°. February is the coldest month in the year with a maximum temperature of 81°. From February on to September there is a steady rise of 1° each month until the highest average monthly temperature is reached, then we find a correspondingly gradual fall until the beginning of November, when the thermometer registers about 86°. During the early part of this month the N.E. trade winds begin to blow, producing a rapid fall of temperature; after that time the fall again becomes regular, until the lowest average temperature is reached in the middle of February. These figures may appear to persons unacquainted with tropical climates extremely high, and they would undoubtedly represent a most oppressive heat, were it not that the air is, for nine months at least in the year, in constant motion, the extensive seaboard of the island, of course, favouring the occurrence of frequent breezes. During the hurricane season,—though the season exists in Tobago only in name, so far as these terrible visitations are concerned,—from August to October, the air is at times perfectly still for days together, and, being loaded with moisture, renders the heat very oppressive. The trade wind, or crop wind as it is called, blows strong from November to June, and during April frequently attains a velocity of 28 miles an hour. From July to October the ordinary wind is from the E.S.E., and rarely exceeds eight miles an hour. When these winds fail, and when the sky is clear, the land and sea breezes are regularly developed, the former being accompanied by heavy dews.

There are not many wild animals in Tobago, and those that do exist are of a comparatively harmless nature; among them may be mentioned deer, peccary, manacoo, agouti, racoon, squirrel, and a variety of rats, including the pouch rat, which has pouches on each side of the face wherein it carries its food. The island is rich in reptiles of the Saurian order, there being many kinds, from alligators down to the smallest lizard, among them may be mentioned the iguana, the flesh of which is highly prized by the negroes, and is, indeed, considered a delicacy by most people. The ornithology of Tobago is both varied and interesting. The late Mr. James Kirk, who for 49 years was a resident of the island, and took a special interest in its ornithology, prepared a complete list of all its birds.

The rivers of the island and the waters round its shores abound with fish, the principal of which are comprised in the following list:—

Albacore, ballahoe, barracouta, bonita, caffum, carvalli, amber carvalli, conger, dolphin, flying fish, flounder, gar fish, grouper, grunt, Jew-fish, king-fish, mullet, plump-head, porpoise, rockhind, sinnet, snapper (several kinds), snook, Spanish mackerel, sprat, stingaree, turtle (several kinds), whale, whiting. Of the above the most esteemed are snapper, king-fish, ballahoe, grouper, and Spanish mackerel. Eels are plentiful, so also are lobsters, crabs, and crayfish.

There are perhaps forty square miles of forest land in Tobago under valuable timber, and probably thirty more under wood of no great value except as firewood.

It is now an accepted theory that the existence of large tracts of forest

land tends to promote the humidity of the atmosphere and to diminish the occurrence of droughts; but in Tobago, where so great a proportion of the land is in wood, there can be no doubt that, having due regard to the necessity of preserving a belt of forest on the main ridge (which is the principal watershed of the island), a judicious system of wood-cutting would be of vast benefit to the Colony. Unfortunately the island rivers are too narrow and shallow to afford means of water conveyance; and this, added to the want of good forest roads, has been the chief reason why the valuable timber trees have for ages remained untouched, for, except on the outskirts of the forests, and in the immediate vicinity of estates where wood is occasionally obtained for building and other purposes, this source of industry and wealth has been totally neglected.

GEOGRAPHY.

TOBAGO, situated about 75 miles to the south-eastward of Grenada and about 20 miles to the north-eastward of Trinidad, is about 26 miles in length and about 7½ miles in extreme breadth. It has an area of 114 square miles. The island, which is of volcanic formation, rises steeply from the sea in its north-eastern extremity, and descends thence in a gradual slope to the south-westward.

ST. LUCIA.

ST. LUCIA.

ADMINISTRATOR AND COLONIAL SECRETARY,
EDWARD LABORDE, C.M.G.

TREASURER,
D. G. GARRAWAY (acting).

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. J. W. CARRINGTON, D.C.L.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
P. J. K. FERGUSON.

ST. LUCIA.

ST. LUCIA is forty-two miles in length and twenty-one at its greatest breadth, with an area of about 155,500 acres, or 243 square miles, and is remarkable for its wild and romantic scenery. Viewed from the sea—whether to windward or leeward, to the north or the south—its appearance is equally grand and picturesque: the whole is one vast panorama, where nature alternately assumes her wildest attitudes and most enchanting forms.

The principal mountains extend longitudinally over the centre of the island. They are densely clothed with forests, and at their highest points bear the distinctive names of Sorcière, Paix-Bouche and Barabara.

The Pitons are two pyramids of solid rock, of the most remarkable and picturesque character, standing on the south side of the entrance to the beautiful bay of Soufrière. One of them is computed to be 3300 feet above the level of the sea, and the other about 3000. They appear to be wholly unconnected with the other mountains, and, from their proximity to the Soufre, or half-extinct volcano, are regarded as the remains of an eruption which occurred at some remote period. From their isolated position, they appear to surpass the other mountains in height, but there is no doubt that the Souffrière would be found to be in reality higher.*

St. Lucia possesses two beautiful plains. The one is situated at the northern extremity, in the parish of Gros-ilet, and the other in the southern extremity, in the parish of Vieux Fort. Each plain contains a swamp of some extent, overgrown with aquatic plants, and the resort of game. The principal valleys are situated transversely on either side of the central chain of mountains. The most extensive to windward is called the Valley of Mabouya, and that to leeward the Valley of Roseau. Other smaller ones are equally remarkable for their fertility.

The greatest natural curiosity in St. Lucia is the Soufrière, or sulphurous mountain above referred to, situated in the parish to which it has given its name. It is about half-an-hour's ride from the town of the same name, and two miles to the east of the Pitons. The crater is 1000 feet above the level of the sea, between two small hills, totally denuded of vegetation. It occupies about three acres, and is crusted over with sulphur, alum, cinders, and other volcanic matter; in the midst of which are to be seen several cauldrons in a perpetual state of ebullition. In some, the water is remarkably clear; but in the larger ones it is quite black, and boils up to the height of two or three feet, constantly emitting dense clouds of sulphurous steam, accompanied by an offensive and suffocating smell. The subterraneous heat is sensibly felt through the strongest shoe—a circumstance which would seem to indicate that the volcanic focus is not confined to the boiling fountains. If the crust to the depth of eighteen inches or two feet be removed, the water underneath will find a vent to the cavity and transform it into a cauldron. Occasionally fresh fountains spontaneously burst forth.

* This description is condensed from "Breen's History."

There is a peculiar feature about the Soufrière which does not belong to any other volcano—its uninterrupted manifestation of the volcanic process. Even the Geysers in Iceland, to which it would seem to bear a striking resemblance, only play at intervals, whilst the Soufrière is in a continuous though less violent state of eruption. From the chaotic appearance of the surrounding objects, and particularly of the Pitons, there is no doubt that this spot was once the centre of some awful convulsion of nature, but at what period there are now no means of ascertaining. Another peculiarity of this volcano is the perennial supply of water which it commands. It is supposed that this water is received through some subterraneous passage from the étangs, or lakes, situated at a distance of half a mile to the south-east of the volcano; and it is curious that the water in the étangs is visibly decreasing year after year.

St. Lucia is watered by innumerable rivers and rivulets, which during the wet season, and after heavy showers, rush down the mornes, tear up brushwood and trees, and precipitate masses of earth and rock upon the roads and fields in the valleys. The rivers in the low grounds also often overflow their banks, and sweep all before them.

At the period of its discovery St. Lucia was occupied by the Caribs, and no attempt at colonisation appears to have been made before the arrival of some English settlers in 1639. In the following year the Caribs fell upon the English settlers, massacred many of them, and drove the rest away. The French from Martinique next took possession of the island, which soon became a bone of contention between the two rival nations —the English laying claim to it in right of priority of settlement, and the French in virtue of an original grant to their countrymen. In 1663 the people of Barbados forming the design of capturing the place, were temporarily checked in that year, but in the next, after a close engagement with the French troops, took possession of the fort on the Morne and the island with it. St. Lucia continued under British rule only until October, 1667, when, in accordance with the spirit of the peace of Breda, the French company's agent at Martinique was invited to take it over.

Another century repeated the varied fortunes of all the West India Islands. The second cession of St. Lucia at the Peace of Paris in 1763 was condemned as an unwise measure. The Earl of Chatham had positively refused in his previous negotiations with M. de Bussy to cede it to France, and Admiral Rodney had at all times been so sensible of its value and importance to Great Britain, that from his earliest acquaintance with the island he never ceased to urge and advise its retention. On the renewal of hostilities it was one of the first points of attack and fell once more to Great Britain, only to be restored, in spite of Rodney's great victory in the roadstead of Dominica, at the Peace of Versailles.

Again, in 1796, St. Lucia was signalled out as the primary object of attack, under no less celebrated a general than Sir Ralph Abercrombie; but it was not till 1803, that a small squadron under Hood, after anchoring in Choc bay, and disembarking without opposition under General Brereton, shut up the French at the Morne and took the town of Castries for the last time. The Morne, after a desperate stand, was carried in less than an hour at the point of the bayonet; since this time the island has continued without interruption under British rule.

Some of the greatest names on England's naval and military annals earned their first lustre in operations connected with St. Lucia, among which may be cited Sir John Moore, Sir Ralph Abercrombie, Lord St. Vincent, and Lord Rodney. The father of Her Gracious Majesty, the Duke of Kent, took, as a subaltern, a distinguished part in the storming of the stronghold of Morne Fortuné on the 4th of April, 1794.

The Port of Castries is one of the safest and most extensive in the Antilles. It has an excellent quay, and possesses a sufficient depth of water to allow the largest vessels to come to anchor close to the wharf. Its entrance is one-third of a mile across, between the headlands of the Tapion and the Vigie; whilst the largest fleet might safely ride at anchor within the basin, and stand out to sea at an hour's notice. The British Government have at last decided to justify Rodney's choice and to make Castries the second naval station in the West Indies. The Colony has been authorised to raise a loan of £60,000, for dredging out the port to a mean depth of thirty feet, and for the construction of wharves, alongside of which the largest ships of war may lie and coal. These works are already being carried out under the supervision of Sir John Coode, and in accordance with plans furnished by him. The Home Government is now taking measures for putting the port in a state of defence, and the military force in the West Indies is to be concentrated at Jamaica and St. Lucia.

Castries, the principal town in the island, and the seat of Government, is situated at the end of the harbour. It was originally called the "Carénage," a name commonly assigned to careening places in the West Indies. The name of "Castries" was first given to it in 1785, in honour of Marshal de Castries, the French Colonial Minister of the day. The public buildings that deserve to be noticed in connection with Castries are the Government House, the Protestant Church, the Asylum, the Government Offices, the Catholic Church, and the Gaol.

The Government is now conducted by an Administrator (who is subordinate to the Governor-in-Chief of the Windward Islands), aided by an Executive Council. The Legislature consists of the Administrator, and a Council composed as the Queen may direct.

Law is administered by a judge, from whom in civil cases there is an appeal to the Court of Appeal of the Windward Islands, and by three magistrates, whose decisions are liable to review by the judge. In criminal cases tried in the Superior Court, facts are decided upon by a jury of twelve, as in England. The basis of the law of St. Lucia is that of the old French monarchy, and on it is founded the code of civil law, which came into force in October, 1879.

Education is advanced by fifteen elementary schools distributed among the ten towns and villages of the island, every place now having at least one. These schools are of two classes, those managed by religious bodies of the Roman Catholic faith, and those managed by the trustees of the Mico Charity, which are undenominational, but have the Bible read daily. They work together with but little friction, and they each have their proper functions to perform. The difference in the total number of pupils taught by each is not great, the number of girls in the Roman Catholic schools being three times and in the Mico schools but one third the number of boys. The reason for this is that convents in Castries and Soufrière have excellent schools for over 700 girls.

There are hospitals in all the towns and dispensaries at all the villages of the Colony, where medical advice and medicines are given gratuitously to the people.

The population in 1881 was 38,551, and is now computed at over 40,000. There has during the last two years been a large emigration to Panama. "The numbers vary according to the season and circumstances. The flow in 1884 ceased almost entirely during the crop season, but recommenced in July, and between that time and November over 900 left, making the total between the 27th April, 1883, and the 9th February, 1885, to be 3084. Most of these are men in the prime of life; in some districts indeed the villages are almost denuded of males. Comparatively few only have returned, some with savings, but others again with broken health. This emigration is commonly spoken of as a great misfortune to the colony. This, however, is a matter for argument, for though it seems an anomaly that the Government should be introducing coolie labour at a great expense, while the natives are leaving, yet, on the other hand, during the recent and still continued agricultural crisis labour has been scarce, and this outlet may have saved the island from the danger of a labouring population suffering from severe want, and may be the means of introducing in the future a peasant proprietary established by the savings of the emigrants."

The revenue raised is equal to about 20 per cent. or a fifth of the gross value of exports, and is at the rate of 18*s.* 7*d.* per head.

Estates have been selling high of late, although the general trade and exports show no marked advance over previous years. The political condition of the neighbouring French colonies has induced some of their capitalists to transfer a portion of their wealth to this settlement.

In reporting on the Blue Book for 1883, the Administrator says, that the area of cultivation has been somewhat extended, and greater attention has been paid to fertilization; much, however, remains to be done, but it can scarcely be expected that this important subject, which hitherto has received so little attention will immediately be recognised.

The question of squatting, a very important one in the interests of the Colony, has not been lost sight of, and the Agricultural Society, recently established, has taken the matter in hand.

Producing corn and innumerable edible roots and vegetables in great variety, with wide and rich pasturage for cattle, with its waters teeming with fish of excellent quality, the forests rich in timber and full of feathered game, with a soil which will yield cotton and fibres of numerous kinds. St. Lucia is favoured beyond most countries in the means of supplying the material wants of its inhabitants without assistance from outside.

The exports from St. Lucia consist principally of sugar, molasses, cocoa and logwood, and were as under in the years 1880-4:—

	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
Sugar:—					
Muscovado lbs.	13,332,800	9,481,250	12,974,500	13,812,200	15,849,792
Usine . ,,	1,410,080	1,836,800	3,839,360	3,278,156	3,126,800
Molasses . galls.	250,200	226,800	304,500	209,250	335,900
Cocoa . . lbs.	438,108	524,612	302,262	307,120	498,610
Logwood . tons.	1,724	2,046	684	714	217

The chief staple of the Colony is sugar, with its secondary products, rum and molasses. But the prices of these commodities have become unremunerative, and attention is being turned to the cultivation of cacao, tobacco, spices, and fibres, for which the rich soil of the island is eminently fitted, and to the raising of cattle for which not only is there a considerable demand locally, but for which the neighbouring Colonies offer a good market. The making of sugar is, however, far from being abandoned. On the contrary, there are in the Colony four large central sugar factories (fitted with every modern improvement) which, situated in centres favourable to cane cultivation, manufacture the canes of contributory estates into pure white crystals, on the most economic principles. It is claimed that, in spite of being so heavily handicapped by Continental bounties, these establishments will still be able to hold their own even at present prices. But, unless there should be a change for the better, the greater portion of the estates which produce muscovado sugar must be allowed to go out of cultivation.

Nearly 500,000 lbs. of cacao were produced in 1884, which is an advance on previous years, but is less than the output of 1878. The cultivation of this product is as a rule exceedingly slovenly and neglected. Care and pruning would double the crop from the existing estates. The cacao cultivation is considerably on the increase.

Tobacco has been tried in one district, and the results have been most satisfactory, the tobacco selling readily at 1s. per pound. It is purposed to extend its cultivation, as it is found to pay better than anything else; as with the recent low price of sugar, and the rapidly extending cultivation of beet for its manufacture, unless attention be turned to other industries in conjunction with cane growing, the West Indian planters will find to their cost, when too late, the error they have made.

Logwood is at present stated to be a drug in the market which will not pay for exportation.

GEOGRAPHY.

ST. LUCIA, 25 miles to the north-east of St. Vincent, in 13° 50′ north latitude and 60° 58′ west longitude, is 42 miles in length, and 21 miles in extreme breadth. It has a total area of 215 square miles. The island is nearly covered by high mountains, among which is the Souffrière, a volcano in occasional activity. The highest points are two peaks which rise almost perpendicularly from the shores of a bay on the south-west coast. The climate of the island is moist and unhealthy.

The principal places are Castries, the capital, with about 4,550 inhabitants, on the north-west coast, and Souffrière, with a population of 2,900 souls.

ANTIGUA.

PRESIDENT AND ISLAND SECRETARY,
HON. NEALE PORTER, C.M.G.

TREASURER,
F. WILDE.

ANTIGUA.

ANTIGUA is an island situated in west long. 61° 45′ and north lat. 17° 6′. The area is 68,980 acres, and the circumference about 70 miles. Seen from the west the island presents five conical hills to the view of the distant observer, but on a nearer approach the high lands of Five Islands and English Harbour, on the south side, and the low lands of Popeshead on the north come into view, contrasting dry and uncultivated hills with fertile and cultivated plains. The highest range of mountains commences at Five Islands running south up to Willoughby Bay, having reached its highest point (1,200 feet) at McNish Mountain.

The island generally is dry, and the rainfall rarely exceeds 45 inches, and has been as low as 26. Antigua has been subject since its earliest colonisation to frequent visitations of drought, and owing to the dryness of the climate the luxuriant tropical vegetation which is common to the more favoured islands is absent in Antigua, and the trees never attain the height and the beauty of those of Dominica, St. Kitts, or Montserrat. There are no rivers in the island, but there are a large number of water courses. The labouring population are supplied with water from ponds conveniently situated, but in seasons of great drought even this supply fails.

As regards its geological structure, and in accordance with the character of its surface, it may be divided into three portions. In these three divisions marked contrasts are exhibited in their geological relations; on one side, the western, the rocks are of an igneous character, denoting violent action, akin to volcanic, but without actual eruption; on the other side, the eastern, the character of the rocks is totally different, being chiefly calcareous freestone and limestone. In the middle space, which is a plain bordered on both sides by hills, both kinds of action may be said to be exhibited; the former in the indurated clays and silicious cherts, the latter in the numerous petrifactions (wood and coral) imbedded in its soil.

The soils of the island are not less varied than its rocks: stiff clays may be considered as predominating in the western division, lighter ones and calcareous marls in the eastern and middle. These are generally productive, especially the marls, of extraordinary fertility.

The coast of Antigua is perhaps the most dangerous in these islands, and navigation is very difficult to vessels making the island for the first time; large vessels seldom attempt to approach any of the harbours or bays without the assistance of a pilot.

The climate is considered one of the most healthy in the tropics, and, with the exception of the hot months, one of the most agreeable. It is remarkable for want of moisture, and is consequently a very good

one for chest diseases, which are uncommon among Antiguans. Persons from the northern colonies afflicted with these diseases find Antigua an agreeable climate, and receive a great deal of advantage from a stay of six or eight months. The range of the thermometer varies from 78° to 80° during the months of November to June, and from 84° to 90° during the hot months of July to October. The diseases which are prevalent in Antigua are confined almost exclusively to the black population, and arise chiefly from uncleanly habits, bad diet, and neglect.

Antigua was discovered by Columbus in 1493, but finding that there were only a few Caribs and nothing of value, he contented himself with giving it its name. The island remained neglected by all the European adventurers until 1620, when Don A. Serrano with a party of Spaniards landed and attempted to establish themselves, but left after a short stay on account of the want of water. The next attempt at colonisation was made by the Earl of Carlisle in 1627, who obtained a grant of Barbados, Antigua, and the Leeward Islands; he colonised Barbados, but does not appear to have made any effort in this direction with regard to Antigua. The first authentic record of colonisation was when Sir Thomas Warner sent his son, Edward Warner, for that purpose to Antigua, who carried the object into effect, and remained as governor during the remainder of his life. With the exception of the record of many attempts to colonise Antigua, and the attacks on the settlers by Caribs, there is nothing interesting in the history of Antigua until the year 1666, when during the war between France and England Antigua capitulated to the French under De la Berre. This appears to have been the only time that Antigua has changed hands, and while hostilities were going on subsequently in all the other West India Islands, she remained a passive and undisturbed spectator.

In the year 1685 six towns were appointed to Antigua as places of trade, namely, St. John's, Falmouth, Old Road, Willoughby Bay, Bridgetown, and Parham. Of these six towns only three exist at present, the others having entirely disappeared, or are now classed as villages. St. John's, Falmouth, and Parham, are the three which enjoy political franchise.

St. John's is the capital of Antigua, and the most important town in the island. It covers an area of 150 acres of land, and contains, as stated in the last census taken in 1881, 9,636 inhabitants. It is built upon a slight declivity towards the sea, and commands a full view of the harbour. St. John's is the seat of Government and the residence of the Governor of the Leeward Islands and the principal officials of the Colony. It is also the residence of the bishop of the diocese.

Antigua is the seat of the general Government of the Leeward Islands. It has a local Government administered by the Governor of the Leeward Islands, assisted by an Executive Council and a Legislative Council composed of 24 members, 12 of whom are nominees of the Crown, and 12 are elected by the people. This is the "Local Council," which for special purposes send 4 delegates to sit in the General Council of the Leeward Islands, under the Federal Act.

The present diocese of Antigua was originally included in that of Barbados, and was one of its three archdeaconries. In 1824 it was created a separate diocese. The diocese consists of 16 islands, viz., 10

English and 6 foreign. The English islands are all in this Leeward Confederation, but the foreign islands are also essentially constituent parts of the diocese, and should be mentioned as such.

At the time of its discovery by Columbus the island was inhabited by a race of people peculiar to the West Indies, called Caribs. They differed in manners from the Caribs of Cuba, Jamaica, &c., who were of a peaceable and friendly nature, whilst those of Antigua were martial, ferocious, and canibalistic. The negro seems specially adapted for this climate, and is to a great extent protected from the heat of the sun by his thick crisp hair and thicker skull. The constitution of the negro is not a strong one, and he is very susceptible to disease; this, however, may be accounted for by his mode of living, and the poor diet upon which he exists, especially when young. Salt fish, vegetables (when they can be got), and corn meal (fungi), being the chief ingredients of the daily meals of infant and adult. On this diet children from birth are fed, as the mothers in most cases are too weak to suckle, and too poor to buy proper nourishment for them. It cannot be wondered then, that on this unnutritious food, at so early a stage of his existence, the negro of Antigua does not develop into a strong man. The men and women are engaged in agricultural pursuits, for which they are well adapted, and as field labourers they are ordinarily efficient, and with fair wages and kind treatment, not wanting in industry; but of late years the demand for labour has been so limited, and the rate of wages so low, that many of the more industrious men, anxious to find employment, have emigrated to the neighbouring islands of Guadeloupe, Trinidad and Puerto Rico, while many others remain in Antigua, but are unable to obtain work regularly. They have no idea of saving money, and are very extravagant in their dress. There are some cases where negroes have risen by their perseverance to deserved influence and respect in the island; but these cases are few and far between, as negroes in Antigua are content to remain as they are, and do not make any effort to better themselves, either morally or pecuniarily, as is shown by the fact that a few hundred Portuguese labourers, who arrived here some years ago, not only have saved sufficient money to enable them to set up as small shopkeepers, but many of them have risen to be the wealthiest men of the island, while there are few negro shopkeepers or men of any wealth. The negroes are of a very quiet and orderly character, but on account of their ignorance are easily excited, and when in this state, combined with that of intoxication, are capable of any atrocity, and become very unmanageable. As house servants they succeed very well if trained from an early age. They make very creditable policemen, and no doubt would turn out well as soldiers.

The total population of the presidency of Antigua on the night of 3rd April 1881, was 34,964 Of this number 16,147 were males, and 18,817 were females. The total population in 1871 was 35,157, of which number 15,988 were males, and 19,159 were females. The decrease in the population since last census is therefore 193.

There are 19,508¼ acres of cultivated land in the island, and 43,705 acres of uncultivated land. The number of estates in cultivation is 102, and the number uncultivated, 60.

Sugar being the staple production of Antigua, the cultivation of the sugar cane, yielding its triple tribute of sugar, molasses, and rum, mainly engages the attention of the agriculturist. The soil being rich and

tenacious is peculiarly adapted for it, and the plant lives and thrives even under the most adverse circumstances. For a great many years after the admission of foreign slave-grown sugar on equal terms with British free labour, this, with all the other British West India Colonies, became seriously depressed, causing for a time diminished production, and in some instances leading to the ruin of the old proprietors. Still, Antigua has wonderfully maintained her position as a sugar-producing country; and although we can count fully forty estates that were highly productive in the days of slavery, thrown out of cultivation for several years past, yet, from the greatly improved agriculture rendering the land more productive, the average crops, if not altogether equal to what they were, have but slightly diminished. The introduction of the steam plough—the first of which was imported in 1863, has, from the thorough completeness with which it delves and turns up the stiff soil to a greater depth than could otherwise be done, conferred advantages that cannot be over-estimated. By its aid lands are being fast reclaimed and brought into fresh cultivation which have long lain waste; and it is not too much to say, that had this wonder-working implement, which has already done so much to regenerate the soil, been in existence before, estates now abandoned would never have been out of cultivation. The average sugar crop for the last twenty years has been about 12,000 hogsheads, during which period the island has suffered at intervals severely from drought. Amongst the changes in manufactures must be mentioned the "concretor," of which the chief merit consists in the saving of drainage. The invention, which has been for some years in operation on the Belvedere Estates, has evidently been successful. The enterprise has now expanded into a company.

The cultivation of cotton—in the early history of the island an important article of export—was, during the cotton famine in Europe, revived, but, although the soil and climate are exceedingly favourable to its growth, the fall in price consequent on the increasing cultivation throughout the world has led to its almost entire abandonment, and the crop has been replaced by sugar.

Yams, potatoes, guinea corn, &c., are grown chiefly by the negroes, the estates only putting a few, but increasing number of, acres of land in cultivation in this manner yearly.

The rate of wages varies very much, and is never high, in consequence of which, and of the limited demand for labour at certain periods of the year, active emigration is going on, which has been before referred to, by which some of the best labourers are taken away, in most cases leaving behind them, without any means of support, a wife and family of young children. The wages of the men is generally from 8*d.* to 10*d.*, and women 6*d.* to 8*d.* per diem. The scarcity of labour suggested the attempt to obtain the introduction of immigrants from Barbados; the result was, however, unsuccesful, owing to the small amount of wages (1*s.*) offered.

Articles of food are cheap considering that they are almost exclusively imported, and there is little or no variation throughout the year.

The wages of domestic servants is—for men, £10 to £20 per annum, and women, £6 to £12 per annum. This includes any class of servant. Mechanics receive 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* per day.

GEOGRAPHY.

ANTIGUA is situated in 61° 45′ west longitude and 17° 6′ north latitude. The coasts, which are indented by numerous bays and harbours, are high and rocky, but the remainder of the island is for the most part level, none of the hills attaining a greater elevation than 1500 feet. Antigua possesses no rivers, and such springs as exist are brackish. The inhabitants are, consequently, dependent upon the rainfall for such potable water as they may require. As droughts are of frequent occurrence, much inconvenience, and in some cases privation, is the result. In spite of this want of water, the soil is fairly productive, and the sugar cane is extensively cultivated. The area of the island is 108 square miles.

The chief place in Antigua is the city of St. John, which is situated on the north-west coast, on the shores of a safe and convenient harbour. English Harbour, on the south coast, is a naval station and one of the best harbours in the West Indies.

ST. CHRISTOPHER AND NEVIS.

PRESIDENT,
F. S. WIGLEY.

RECEIVER-GENERAL,
W. D. AUCHINLECK.

ST. CHRISTOPHER.

THE island of St. Christopher lies nearly west from Antigua, in latitude 17° 18′ N. and longitude 62° 48′ W. The main body presents to the eye an irregular oval of between twelve and thirteen miles long, as the bird flies, by about five and a-half miles at its widest part, but slightly diminishing in breadth to the east and west ends. From its eastern end projects a long neck of uncultivated land, which at its extremity expands and rises into conical hills, covered with grass, mimosæ, and cacti: these hills embrace the Salt Ponds which are about two miles in circumference.

To the west of this neck of land rise some hills between which and Monkey Hill on the west lies the Valley of Basseterre. From Monkey Hill commences a series of mountains, or rather one great mount; the highest peak named Mount Misery, 4,060 feet above the level of the sea, which, intersected by two important natural depressions, runs through the centre of the main body of the island, and from the sides of which the country slopes in lovely undulations to the sea shore. On these slopes and the intervening plateaus, the sugar cane is cultivated, and wherever a foothold can be obtained to enable a hoe to be used, the cane fields are pushed up the sides of the hills, while in the flats the plough is freely employed, and the highest and most scientific cultivation is pursued. The higher slopes of the mountains are clothed with grass, while their summits are crowned with noyeau, or iron wood, Spanish ash, red sweetwood, wild mahoe, snake wood, white box, dogwood, and other forest trees.

There are 135 estates containing 18,507 acres of arable land under cultivation, principally in sugar cane, small portions of which, however, are annually planted with sweet potatoes, arrowroot, tous les mois, cassava and ground nuts. Coffee and cocoa, with a little tobacco, are also grown, but in much too small quantities for export. In some cases two, and in others three, of the estates are worked together as one, the steam engine having been now generally introduced into the island, enabling the proprietors to manufacture a much larger area of canes in a more expeditious manner than could possibly be done under the old system of windmill and cattle mills. Two estates, Salt Ponds and Frigate Bay, only have been abandoned as sugar producing, and have been converted into breeding and pasture lands.

The soil is chiefly of a dark grey, but also of red and black loam, which is extremely porous, and layers of volcanic ashes are found in the parish of St. Anns. The substratum consists of either gravel or disintegrated pumice. This soil is easily worked by the plough and hoe, and its fertility is great. From one to four hhds. of sixteen to seventeen cwts. are produced from an acre of sugar-cane according to circumstances and the rainfall,

and as about 8,000 acres are annually under cultivation, a crop of 12,000 hhds. is considered a good average.

St. Kitts is, on the whole, one of the pleasantest and healthiest islands in the West Indies. Its general configuration is favourable to thorough drainage, and the soil is of a loose and sandy nature, through which water quickly percolates.

The gap in the mountain chain to the eastward of Basseterre, although it admits of the formation of swamps in the neighbourhood of this town, secures the constant passage over it of a current of air, and this is further favoured by the diminution, above mentioned, of the height of the hills to windward.

West Indian islands have but two seasons, which divide the year between them about equally. Hot weather prevails from the beginning of May to the end of October, while the other six months are cool, or at all events cooler.

Many persons believe that the West Indian climate is peculiarly prejudicial to the health of white men, but there is in reality as great a chance of longevity in some of the islands for Europeans, or their Creole descendants, as there is in England or France. The truth of this statement is recognised and successfully acted on by the Barbados Mutual Life Assurance Society.

There are no harbours in St. Kitts or Nevis. Three roadsteads are used for large ships engaged in landing goods or shipping sugars.

There is one main road round the island, which is macadamised throughout, and is thirty miles long, with an average width of twenty-four feet.

There are three towns, so-called, viz.—Basseterre, the capital, Old Road, and Sandy Point; contains about 1,618 houses, and a population of about 7,500. In it are Government House, and the other chief public buildings. The principal one contains the Court House, where the meetings of the Legislative Assembly also take place, the Offices of the Judge, Attorney General, Registrar of Deeds and of Courts, the President's Offices, and that of Surveyor of Roads. The Custom House, including the Post Office, is on the Bay, the Gaol and Police Station nearly in the middle of the town, and the Hospital and Lunatic Asylum at its extreme western boundary, or to leeward of the town. There is a very handsome church.

St. Christopher or St. Kitts was discovered by Columbus in 1493. He was so pleased with its appearance that he gave to it his own christian name. It was called by its ancient possessors, the Caribs, "Llaminga" or the "Fertile Isle." Some say, however, that its name is derived from a part of Mount Misery which bears a resemblance to the statues of St. Christopher carrying our Saviour on his shoulders.

The island was then densely peopled by Caribs, who remained for some time after its discovery in possession of their native home. It is now generally admitted that St. Kitts is the mother colony of the English and French settlements in the Caribbean Sea. The first actual establishment in Barbados did not take place till the latter end of 1624. The first attempt to found a settlement in this island was made by Mr. Warner, in 1623.

In 1627 the English and French agreed to divide the island between

them, and articles of partition were signed on the 13th May. These comprehended a league defensive and offensive.

The flow of emigration at this period to the West Indies was so great, that in one year the number of English settlers amounted to 6,000.

For some years the French and English seem to have lived on good terms with each other, but at length jealousies and bickerings began between them, ending at last in violence and bloodshed. It is impossible now to say which were the first aggressors. At the Peace of Breda, the English colonists were restored to their portion of the island, and for twenty years the French and English lived in peace.

At the time of the Revolution in 1689, however, hostilities broke out anew. The French planters, attacked the English colonists, put to death all who opposed, and forced the English to fly from the island. In 1690, General Codrington and Sir F. Thornhill, with a large force from Barbados, drove the French from the island, not only taking sole possession in their turn, but also transporting 800 of the French to Martinique and Hispaniola. By the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697, restoration was made to the French of the part they had formerly possessed. This they retained till 1702, when the island was captured by the English. By the Peace of Utrecht, 1713, the island was entirely ceded to the British Crown.

In 1866 Sir Benjamin Pine introduced measures to alter the Constitution of the island. Acts were passed abolishing the two Houses of Legislature, substituting for them a single Chamber composed of three officers of the Crown, *ex-officio*, seven nominees of the Crown; and ten elected members.

Subsequently the island became part of the general Government of the Leeward Islands. In 1878, the Crown Colony system, pure and simple, was introduced into the island legislature.

The principal trade consists of imports from Great Britain and the United States of America, and the export of rum and molasses to the same places, but chiefly to Great Britain. A considerable quantity of British and American goods are also exported to the neighbouring islands, chiefly from the bonded warehouses.

The agricultural progress of the island is marked in the annexed table, exhibiting by quinquennial averages for thirty years the exports of sugar, rum, and molasses.

Periods.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Rum.
	100 lbs.	Gallons.	Gallons.
1853 to 1857	647,733	1,078,914	681,857
1858 to 1862	787,856	1,396,070	738,229
1863 to 1867	846,843	1,427,652	314,903
1868 to 1872	1,012,297	1,642,535	273,460
1873 to 1877	748,602	1,236,586.	529,967
1878 to 1882	1,114,269	2,224,723	287,284
Averages	859,600	1,504,413	470,950

St. Kitts is exceedingly fertile. Whatever any tropical country produces will grow readily here. Droughts are speedily and severely felt, owing to

the heat of the sun's rays and the porous nature of the soil, but as soon as ever showery weather sets in, vegetation recovers itself with wonderful rapidity.

The agriculture is, as has already been stated, of the most advanced and scientific character, and the old wind and cattle mills have almost entirely been superseded by the steam engine. Manures, both native and foreign, are employed with a liberal hand, and if an average quantity of rain falls at the expected period of the year, there is no land which yields a more bountiful return to the sugar planter; while on the other hand, if droughts supervene, the porous soil is soon exhausted of the needful moisture, and the cane suffers in proportion.

There are two or three large salt marshes, from which between 13,000 and 14,000 barrels of salt are annually procured at the Salt Ponds situated in a break in the chain of little hills that runs through the tail of the island.

The markets are fairly supplied with beef, mutton, and pork, but, as a general rule, the meat is of an indifferent quality. Most of the animals are bred in the island, but some are imported from Anguilla, St. Martin's, and Nevis. Fish is plentiful and good, while vegetables, with the exception of sweet potatoes, are far from abundant.

The only wild animals now found in St. Kitts are the agouti, crapaud, tortoise, and a small monkey, which are confined to the wooded hills and mountains, but the monkey frequently descends to the higher sugar estates, and regales itself with the cane and potato, of which it seems very fond.

Firewood is sufficiently plentiful, and sells at 16*s.* per cord, and there is some fine timber in the mountains; but the cost of bringing it to market is too great to permit of any profitable exportation.

The produce of the island is conveyed from the estates to the shipping places in cattle waggons, and in carts drawn by mules and horses. From four to eight oxen are used in bringing to the sea-board a waggon laden with two hogsheads of sugar, according to the distance and the steepness of the road over which they have to travel.

The average rate of wages is as follows—predial:—men are paid generally 1*s.* per day, but an able-bodied labourer can earn by task or job 2*s.* 6*d.* a day. Women are paid from 8*d.* to 10*d.*; and boys and girls, called the "small gang," receive from 4*d.* to 6*d.* per day. Domestic servants are paid from 8*s.* to 24*s.* per month, and tradesmen receive from 2*s.* to 4*s.* per day.

NEVIS.

The island of Nevis lies immediately to the S.E. of St. Christopher, from which it is separated by a strait of about two miles in breadth at its narrowest part.

It is nearly of a circular form; its area is about 32,000 acres, of which some 16,000 acres are opened for cultivation; almost in the centre rises the dark-wooded ancient crater, whose greatest elevation is 3,200 feet above the level of the sea. The average height of the thermometer is 82° Fahr. on the low ground.

Charlestown, the principal town, lies along the shore of a wide bay, and the mountain begins to rise immediately behind it. There are five parishes.

Nevis was discovered by Columbus on his second voyage in 1493; and

named by him from the cloud-capped central peak. Settled by the English in 1625, it has enjoyed an unusually uninterrupted period of British rule; two French invasions destroyed far less property than a constant succession of earthquakes and hurricanes. Its elevation to be one of the chief slave-marts of the West Indies may seem to some to have been the cause of many retributive convulsions of nature. The emancipation of the slaves had a more crushing effect in Nevis than elsewhere: the abolition of the trade in slaves had already set it languishing; in 1833 a complete collapse of credit ensued. Drought and pestilence supervened and left the island almost a desert: "The condition of the labourer was miserable in the extreme; his wages wrung from an impoverished proprietary scarcely averaged 5*d.* a day; he was the occupant of a thatched hut; as tenant at will, and he often violated moral rights by maintaining himself at the cost of others." A quarter of a century ago things changed for the better. There came amongst the people an enlightened proprietor whose desire has been to make Nevis a garden. If his hopes have not yet been realised, yet an enormous improvement has taken place: all available labour is absorbed; the methods and results of cultivation have been rendered more than creditable; labourers can earn 2*s.* 8*d.* per day; many of them have become proprietors; the owners of estates are comfortably off, if not wealthy; the public finances have for some years been considered, in their small way, amongst the most prosperous of West India Islands.

The largest population that Nevis ever supported was 20,000, about the year 1700. It is now under 12,000. Some effort was made to increase this by Indian immigration, but it is no longer supported, and a few coolies only remain in the island.

Till 1883 Nevis was a separate Government from St. Kitts, with its own council formed upon the ruins of a partially elective chamber, which itself had its origin in 1866, when the Constitution was simplified in the same way as in St. Kitts and Antigua, and a single Chamber was established in which, although the representative element was preserved, the majority of votes rested with the nominees of the Crown. Now its President has been abolished, and it is joined administratively to St. Kitts, sending two members to the combined Council. Communication between the two islands is by boat, but not across the narrow strait dividing the islands, which lie out of the direct course for boats plying between the two islands. The distance between Basseterre and Charlestown is about twelve miles. A roughness of the sea occasionally prevents communication, and sudden and dangerous squalls sometimes occur, but with the help of a steam launch the run is not very difficult or long.

Sugar is the chief product, but an effort is now being made to grow limes. Drought is the enemy of the planter, who must chiefly depend for water on the mountain springs. In ground provisions, as well as forest products, Nevis is, nevertheless, equal to her neighbours.

Sulphur deposits are plentiful, and might be turned to good account in the future.

ANGUILLA.

Anguilla is about sixty miles north-west of St. Christopher, is sixteen miles in length, and varies in breadth from three to one and a-half miles, containing an area of thirty-five square miles.

The island is extremely healthy, and the population is computed at 2,500, of whom 100 are white, and the remainder coloured or black.

Anguilla is under the Presidency of St. Christopher, being governed locally by a stipendiary magistrate, paid from the Imperial treasury. This officer is assisted by a vestry, of which he is chairman. The vestry is composed of the stipendiary magistrate, three elected members, and three nominated by the Crown.

The revenue of Anguilla may be estimated at £555, and the expenditure at about the same amount.

The local courts for the administration of justice are the Magistrate's Court and the Small Debt Court; but the island is also within the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of the Leeward Islands.

Besides cattle, ponies, and garden stock, which last meets with a ready sale at St. Thomas, the productions are phosphate of lime and salt. In the latter commodities the trade is decidedly on the increase.

GEOGRAPHY.

ST. CHRISTOPHER (or St. Kitts) and NEVIS.—These two islands, with Anguilla, now form one presidency, called the Presidency of St. Christopher and Nevis.

ST. CHRISTOPHER, a long and narrow island, with an area of 68 square miles, is situated in 17° 18′ north latitude, and longitude 62° 48′ west. The greater portion is rugged and mountainous, but there is a considerable plain, called the Valley of Basseterre, in the south-west part of the island. The lower slopes of the mountains possess a fertile soil, and are pretty generally cultivated. At the north-western extremity of St. Kitts, is Mount Misery, an extinct volcano, upwards of 4,000 feet in height. The chief town of the island is Basseterre, on the south coast.

NEVIS, situated in 17° 10′ north latitude, and 62° 33′ west longitude, consists of a single mountain, of volcanic origin, which rises by a gentle ascent from the sea to an elevation of 3,200 feet. Nevis is separated from St. Kitts by a strait in one place not more than two miles in width. The area of the island is about 50 square miles. Charlestown, on the shore of a wide bay, is the capital.

ANGUILLA, with an area of 35 square miles, lies about 60 miles to the north-west of St. Christopher. It is a long, narrow island, with a low and flat surface, not very fertile, from the deficiency of water. A good many cattle are, however, reared and exported to St. Thomas. There is also a considerable trade in salt, which is obtained from a small lake in the centre of the island.

DOMINICA.

DOMINICA.

PRESIDENT,
J. K. G. T. S. CHURCHILL (acting).

TREASURER,
W. HENRY PORTER (acting)

DOMINICA.

THE island of Dominica is situated in the Caribbean Sea, between 15° 20′ and 15° 45′ north latitude, and 61° 30′ west longitude; it lies midway between the French islands of Guadeloupe to the north-west and Martinique to the southward. It contains by survey 186,436 acres, of which about 55,000 acres are under cultivation, the coast line being about 100 miles.

This island was included in the grant made of sundry islands in the Caribbean Sea to the Earl of Carlisle, by a patent dated 2nd June, 1627; but several attempts to bring the place under subjection to the English proved abortive. By the treaty signed at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, it was stipulated between the English and French that Dominica and some other islands should remain neutral, and that the original proprietors, the Caribs, should be left in possession. During the time that Dominica was thus professedly regarded by the English and by the French as a "neutral" island, many French planters settled on it and established plantations. In 1756 Dominica became by conquest a dependency of England, and by the peace of Paris was assigned to Great Britain. Commissioners were sent out for the purpose of surveying and selling the lands capable of cultivation, and the quantity sold yielded to the British Crown the sum of £312,092 11*s.* 1*d.*

Dominica at this time formed one of a General Government, comprising, besides Grenada and the Grenadines, St. Vincent and Tobago.

After a period of varying ownership, in 1805, the epoch now used in the island for marking the time of events, the French again landed at Roseau. The regular troops and the militia fought gallantly, but unfortunately Roseau, the capital, was set on fire accidentally, and was obliged to capitulate, paying the enemy £12,000 to quit; whilst the Governor and the troops marched to a new position at Prince Ruperts. Since this period the island has not known war. At this time the population consisted of 1,594 whites, 22,083 negro slaves, and 2,882 free coloured people.

After the year 1816 and the final conclusion of peace with France, the island continued in a course of peaceful development interrupted only by some temporary checks, but political disturbances did not finally cease until the year 1865, the constitution of the legislature then was modified by the passing of a Bill creating a single legislative chamber and reducing the number of members to 14, of whom 7 were to be elected and 7 nominated by the Crown. This change in the Constitution, which has been productive of beneficial results, was followed in 1872 the establish-

ment of The Federal Colony of the "Leeward Islands," of which Dominica forms a part.

The late Dr. Imray, in the 'Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal,' 1848, gives an excellent description of Dominica, from which we abstract a few passages :—

"Viewed from the sea the island has a singularly bold and magnificent appearance. A dark irregular mass of lofty mountains rises abruptly from the ocean, as if suddenly upheaved from the deep by some mighty convulsion of nature. The rugged grandeur of the island is softened on a nearer approach by the mantle of green that everywhere covers its surface, from the sea margin to the tops of the highest mountains. In sailing along the coast, the smiling valleys, deep ravines with overhanging cliffs, and lofty wooded mountains, form a succession of views of exceeding beauty and magnificence. The coasts of the island, for the most part bold and rocky, are here and there indented by deep bays. On the windward side high ranges of cliffs, broken at intervals by ravines and valleys, rise precipitously from the water's edge. The European visitor is struck with the luxuriance of vegetation that everywhere meets his eye. Wherever, indeed, the smallest portion of soil can collect, there some form of vegetable life is met with. The formation of the island is volcanic. The cliffs near the sea are chiefly composed of vast masses of conglomerate. There are many volcanic openings in different parts of the island. Around all of those that I have visited are found large accumulations of sulphur. This substance is met with in greatest quantities at the southern extremity of the island in a deep and confined valley, where there are several volcanic fissures. Near most of these openings springs of hot water issue from crevices, and in the Roseau valley they boil up in the bed of the river.

"From the mountainous nature of the country abundance of rain falls; and in the bottom of almost every valley there is a clear running stream fed by many tributaries. The whole face of the island, except where it is cleared by cultivation, is covered with forest. In some of the valleys the forest trees attain an enormous height and size; their stately massive trunks rising from the ground like huge columns excite the wonder and admiration of the beholder. The soil differs in quality in different districts, but is everywhere fertile in the low lying grounds, and a short way up the sides of the mountain. Still higher up, a red or yellow clay is generally found covered by a thin stratum of vegetable mould. A substratum of clay is, however, very common throughout the whole island.

"Of the surface of the country generally but a small portion is in cultivation, not more than a thirtieth part. The sugar plantations are chiefly situated in the valleys near the coast, where the soil is very productive. The mountains bordering on the sea round the whole island were at one time covered with fine plantations of coffee, which then formed the staple export of the Colony. About eighteen years ago there appeared on the trees a blight, which has completely ruined these properties, not much more coffee being now produced than suffices for the consumption of the inhabitants. The cultivation is reviving.

"Though the temperature at some seasons is high during the day and the atmosphere close and sultry, the nights are invariably cool, the neigh-

bouring high mountains sending down their refreshing breezes as the sun sets. The average temperature in Roseau for each month, taking over a period of five years, is—mean annual temperature 79·40. The average maximum is 83·93, and the minimum 74·83. The mean temperature near the coast is about the same as in the other islands, but the minimum range is considerably under most of them.

"The whole surface of the island being so irregular, there is comparatively very little marshy land. The only morass of any extent is near the fortress of Prince Ruperts, and in consequence the district in the neighbourhood is very unhealthy.

The majority of people reside on or near the sugar estates, or in detached huts and villages along the coast; though many are located on the abandoned coffee estates in the mountains, or on the Crown lands. As may be supposed from the nature of the country, the climate varies much both in point of temperature and salubrity. One or two limited portions of the island, but chiefly around the marsh of Prince Ruperts, are unhealthy, and have given the island a general character for insalubrity that it by no means deserves. Did sufficient data exist to furnish a fair statement of the vital statistics of all our West Indian Colonies, I doubt not that Dominica will take a rank far above that which it now holds.

The industry of the island is almost entirely confined to agriculture, and trade exists in its simplest form, i.e., the export of surplus agricultural produce, and the importation and sale by retail of the necessaries of life, in food and clothing.

Only 20,000 acres are under cultivation, and the rest of the land is for the most part covered with virgin forests. Subtracting 26,000 acres from the total area to allow for mountainous land, and setting on one side the 20,000 acres already planted, there remains at least 140,000 acres available, according to elevation, for the cultivation of a large variety of tropical and sub-tropical plants. In the bottoms of the larger valleys the land is alluvial; but in other places it is principally a clayey loam formed by the decomposition of grey trachytic rocks. Most of the estates lie along the coast-line, and the greater part of the interior is still covered with a primeval forest of lofty trees, yielding valuable timber and cabinet woods. Although the island is mountainous, there exist plateaux and undulating lands covering thousands of acres; and in the centre of the island, where a break in the mountain system occurs, there is a fine tract of well-watered country available for settlement, and larger in area than the whole of the island of Montserrat. It is curious that the resources of an island so richly endowed by nature should have remained undeveloped for so long a time, but within the last few years new cultivations have been established, and indications are not wanting to show that Dominica will soon become prosperous.

Sugar is the staple product of the island; but although the cane thrives wonderfully well in the soil, the export of its products is not now greater than at the end of the last century; 6,000 hogsheads of sugar is the greatest limit reached, and but a trifling quantity of rum is exported. Should the price of sugar again become remunerative, then there will doubtless be increased enterprise in cane culture, for Dominica could easily produce as much sugar as Antigua or St. Kitts, whilst leaving abundant land for other products.

Cacao is the second important export from the island. Several years ago the annual crop reached over three-quarters of a million pounds in weight, and before very long these figures ought to be doubled, for new cacao plantations are being opened in every direction. As the planters gain more experience in the fermentation of the bean, the ruling prices of Dominica cacao will rise in the markets, since the article can be produced as well in the island as in Grenada and Trinidad.

Lime-juice is now in rank the third staple. The origin of the cultivation of the lime-tree—a member of the orange family—is due to the late Dr. Imray, who by example and precept proved to the people that there could be raised many kinds of tropical products in the island at a profit. The raw lime-juice is exported in increasing quantities; but the greater part of the juice is boiled down until ten or twelve gallons are reduced to one, and it is shipped in this concentrated form to England and the United States, where it is used in the manufacture of citric acid. The lime-tree is quite naturalised in the island, and in certain localities it is found in a semi-wild state.

Coffee was at the beginning of the century the chief export of the island, and Dominica coffee was then considered one of the best kinds grown in the West Indies. But about forty years ago an insect blight attacked the trees, and nearly all the coffee-planters were ruined by its devastations. The blight exists now; but at high elevations it does not prevent the trees from bearing remunerative crops, and it has no effect on the robuster Liberian species now naturalised in the lowlands.

Within the last few years an export trade in oranges has been established. The orange-trees are almost wild, and the bulk of the fruit exported is gathered from trees that have grown up, for the most part of their own accord, around the huts of the peasants and in odd corners of the estates. Although one or two thousand packages of oranges are sometimes shipped on board one steamer, there is not a single orange plantation in the island, and no more conclusive fact could be adduced as to the room for enterprise in this direction. Nearly the whole of the fruit is shipped to New York; being brought to the chief town by the people and sold to Americans who settle in the island during the crop-time.

Bananas, pine-apples, cocoanuts, and other tropical fruits thrive luxuriantly in the island, and are destined before long to become important articles of export. Serious attention has been directed to the fruit trade within the last two or three years only, and yet the exports reached the value of nearly £2,000 in 1885. Various kinds of essential oils are made in the island and shipped to England and the United States.

The greater part of the bay-rum exported from St. Thomas is made from oil distilled from Dominica bay-leaves. These leaves are the produce of the *Eugenia pimenta*, from which is obtained pimento, or allspice. The tree is a native of Dominica as well as Jamaica. The leaves are dried and exported in large quantities to the United States, as the duty on bay-oil and bay-rum is exceedingly high in that country.

The following articles are also exported from the island, viz., ginger, cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, arrowroot, tous-les-mois, cassava meal, log-wood, hard woods of various kinds, satin and other cabinet woods, canoe shells, &c. And it may be mentioned that successful experiments have

shown that the cultivation of tobacco, black pepper, vanilla, cardamons, and fibre-producing plants, can be prosecuted at a profit.

Of smaller industries the manufacture of starch and farine from the manioc, or cassava root, is the most important, the manioc flour or farine being largely used for food by all classes in Dominica and the neighbouring French islands.

Basket work (an old Carib industry) is still flourishing, articles such as fish-pots, baskets for packing and for ornament, are made in considerable numbers for home use and for export to other islands. Sacks for holding sugar and pressing manioc are made from the fan-palm. Coarse pottery is manufactured at the north end of the island and exported to Guadeloupe.

On the windward coast of the island, where the forests are more accessible, canoes are made by hollowing out the trunks of Gomier trees. This kind of boat is in common use at the port of Roseau for loading and discharging cargo from ships, and for fishing and general use all round the coast. The art of making these canoes out of single trunks of trees was learnt originally from the Caribs, and the shape remains unaltered from that of the earliest times. The manufacture of staves and wooden hoops for casks, hogsheads, &c., has been increasing of late years.

Food is abundant in Dominica, and therefore living is cheap. Beef, veal, mutton, and pork, are obtainable all the year round in the chief towns, and there is an abundant supply of excellent fresh fish from the sea and the rivers of the island. Fowls are bred by nearly all the peasants, eggs are plentiful, and during the shooting season wild pigeons and so-called "partridges" are brought to the markets in considerable numbers. The peas, beans, carrots, turnips, and cabbages of temperate climes are grown in the hills, watercress is found wild along the banks of some of the mountain streams, and several kinds of nutritious "greens" are indigenous to the island. Yams, plantains, sweet potatoes, and other tropical "ground provisions" are perhaps cheaper in Dominica than in any other part of the West Indies. These ground provisions form the chief alimentary support of the people. The plantain is more especially rich in nitrogenous matter, it is easy of digestion, and it may with justness be styled the "staff of life" of the western tropics.

Although the area of Crown lands still remaining available for settlement is relatively considerable, the high price (a guinea per acre for uncleared land), and the high fees for survey and legal expenses, render the acquisition of these lands impossible to all but a few persons of the peasant proprietor class, and capitalists have not hitherto considered them in the light of a profitable investment.

The total population of Dominica at the census of 1881 was 28,211, of whom 27,204 were natives of the island. There were 309 Caribs, of whom 173 were considered to be actual Caribs by descent, without any admixture of negro blood. These interesting people, descendants of the warlike savages who were the former possessors of this and other islands of the Caribbean Sea, still form a community entirely apart from the negro population which surrounds them. Of the total population 12,867 were males and 15,344 females. The emigration of male labourers to the gold mines of Cayenne and Venezuela is probably the principal cause of this disproportion in the numbers of the sexes.

During the year 442 deaths were recorded; in other words, the death-rate was 15·6 per thousand. This is a very low rate for the tropics; indeed it is lower than that recorded for many of the towns of Great Britain. A low rate of mortality is the more noteworthy as, owing to the fact that there are only three medical men in the island, the greater number of the people must of necessity be without professional attendance during their illness.

GEOGRAPHY.

DOMINICA is situated between the French islands of Guadeloupe and Martinique, between 15° 20′ and 15° 45′ north latitude, and 61° 13′ and 61° 30′ east longitude. It is 29 miles long by 16 miles broad, and has an area of 275 miles. The interior is covered with rugged mountains mostly well wooded, but around the coast the soil is fertile, producing good crops of sugar, coffee, maize, cotton and tobacco. Game is very plentiful, and the numerous streams contain great quantities of fish. Sulphur, thrown out of the souffrières, or volcanic vents, is very plentiful. The climate of Dominica is moist and unhealthy.

The principal town is Roseau, on the south-west coast. St. Joseph, farther to the northward, is also on the west coast.

MONTSERRAT.

MONTSERRAT.

PRESIDENT AND TREASURER,

JAMES MEADE (acting).

MONTSERRAT.

THE island of Montserrat, situated in N. lat. 16° 42′, W. long. 62° 13′, is about 10½ miles in length from north to south, and 6½ miles in width from east to west, contains about 35 square miles. It is about 26 statute miles south-west of the nearest point of Antigua, 30 south-east of Nevis, and 40 north-west of Guadeloupe, with deep soundings and bold water all round its coast. It was discovered by Columbus on Sunday, the 10th of November, 1493, on his second voyage of discovery, and named by him Montserrat, after some fancied resemblance to a mountain in Spain of that name, on which is situated the monastery in which Ignatius Loyola conceived the project of founding the Society of Jesus. There is only one complete survey of the island known to have been made—viz., that under the direction of Captain Parsons, R.N., of the Hydrographical Staff of the Admiralty. The population is now estimated at about 11,000. The chief town and port is Plymouth. The anchorage is an open roadstead, but there is excellent holding-ground opposite the town for ordinary merchantmen. The island is very mountainous, rising in its highest peak to 3,002 feet above sea-level, and having several over 2,500. These hills being clothed to their summit by dense primeval forest give it great beauty, which is enhanced by the varying shades of green of the cultivated slopes at their bases, with their crops of sugar cane, fruit limes, and guinea grass, and the browns of the newly-opened lands; whilst the many windmills of the small sugar works furnish the life and movement necessary to complete the landscape. The roads, which are necessarily winding, are kept in fairly good order for a mountainous country, and are very picturesque, being in many places well shaded by trees.

The island was first colonized by the English in 1632, but the French took it in 1664, and levied heavy imposts on its inhabitants. It was restored to England in 1668, when it was granted by charter a Constitution of its own, with a Legislative Council and House of Assembly. It remained in the possession of Great Britain until 1782, when it capitulated to the French, but was again restored to the English in 1784, in whose possession it has remained undisturbed since.

Under the Federal Act, Montserrat is a Presidency, forming part of the Colony of the Leeward Islands. The President is the Resident District Magistrate and a Commissioner of the Supreme Court. With the federation of the islands the Superior Courts of Law and Justice were reorganised. The Courts of Queen's Bench and Common Pleas

being merged into "The Supreme Court" with its three judges going on circuit and holding the Court alternately in each island twice or thrice a year.

Contrary to the principle adopted in the neighbouring islands, the Church has not been disestablished here, but in 1871 an arrangement was made (upon the living of St. Anthony-cum-St. Patrick falling vacant) that half the stipend only should be paid, the other half being distributed to the Wesleyans and Roman Catholics—the former now get £100, and the latter £50 per annum—but this arrangement has not the sanction of any legal authority. According to the census of 1881 there were 7,172 members of the Established Church, with only 509 Roman Catholics, and 2,378 Wesleyans.

The climate is very salubrious, and Montserrat has been called the "Montpellier" of the West Indies. The daily average temperature is 80° Fahrenheit; the daily variation very slight, rarely over 6°; the annual extremes being about 72° to 84°; the hygrometrical difference is generally about 6°, seldom reaching 10°. The average rainfall may be taken as 56 inches upon lands under 500 feet elevation, and 78 to 80 inches at 1,000 feet and near the mountain forests. The heat is seldom oppressive, as it is nearly always tempered by a sea breeze; the prevailing winds are a little north of east for the first half of the year, and a little south of east afterwards. Strange to say, Montserrat has never suffered severely from hurricanes, although it has twice lately (in 1867 and 1871) been well within the destructive circle. Probably the mountainous character of the island breaks up the wind currents.

About one half of the land can be cultivated to advantage, the other half only in woodland or corresponding cultures. The soil varies from light sandy loam to stiff clay, and is generally of great depth; the geological character is volcanic, and it is very fertile; iron enters largely into its composition, and the sand on the shore in some places contains as much as 30 per cent. of magnetic iron. The minerals are chiefly iron, sulphur, and aluminous products, an active "souffrière" being in the hills to the south end of the island. The estates are generally about 200 acres in extent, but in some cases three or four of these have been amalgamated; others again have been subdivided and sold out in freehold allotments of from one to three acres to the negroes; thus thriving villages have been established, and the lots so sold out have often been again subdivided into house lots, the value of such land having been at least quadrupled within the last fifteen years. The method of agriculture is about equally divided between the hoe and the plough, and is carried out upon modern principles. The crops grown are sugar canes, fruit limes, sweet potatoes, yams, eddoes, beans, pigeon peas, cassava, arrowroot, tous-les-mois, aloes, ginger, Indian corn, &c., &c., whilst the fruit trees furnish tamarinds, bananas, oranges, breadfruit, bread nuts, papaws, &c., for export, and abundant tropical fruits for island consumption. The mountains abound in the delicate "mountain cabbage," a vegetable rivaling asparagus, forming the heart of the palm *Areca oleracea*, or *Oreodoxa oleracea*, which, unfortunately, it is necessary to kill to obtain it. Many valuable drugs, gums, and resins are also found in the mountain forests, such as sarsaparilla, cascarilla bark, quassia, gum elemi, &c., and pimento is also plentiful, but none of these have yet been utilised as

exports. Of acclimatised vegetables there are but few, the turnip, carrot, potato, cabbage, lettuce, and green-pea being but sparingly grown.

The principal trade is with the mother country, although the United States of America have latterly been running her a close race. It consists generally of sugar, molasses, rum, and lime juice outwards; and breadstuffs, household sundries, pine-timber, hardware, and machinery inwards. The tariffs are of two kinds—specific and ad valorem; the former on articles of general consumption, and the latter on articles not enumerated in the schedules of duties or exemptions; the duties on breadstuffs are very low.

The total imports and exports of the island are valued as follows:—

	Imports.	Exports.
United Kingdom	£8,110	£13,761
British Colonies	15,009	1,293
Foreign	2,479	17,624
	25,598	32,678

The industries are almost entirely agricultural, or closely allied thereto. There are no manufactures of importance but sugar and lime-juice and their products; sugar cane and fruit limes are also the most important crops, but small quantities of most West Indian products are cultivated for island use, and vegetables are grown abundantly and stock raised more than sufficient for local requirements. The mountain forests abound with good timber and furniture wood, but it is exported but little, carriage and freight being heavy in proportion to its market value. Many sugar works are furnished with fine steam machinery, and a few with water wheels, but the wind-mill and the cattle mill are still to be seen at work on some fine estates. Fruit lime growing has much extended of late years, and the Montserrat Company, Limited, have now over 1,000 acres of these trees, and other proprietors have lately begun planting.

The revenue is derived as follows: about one-half from import duties; one-fifth from export and excise, one-fourth from land and property tax, and one-twentieth from miscellaneous licences and stamps. It amounts to about £6,000 in all.

The population was returned as 10,087 in the census of 1881, and is and has been steadily increasing for some years at a rate of rather over 18 per 1,000 per annum; it is now estimated at rather over 11,000. Emigration and immigration about balance one another; there being no immigrant labourers in the true sense of the term. The rapid increase in population is no doubt due in a measure to the salubrity of the climate, and to the Government provision of medical attendance and medicines free for all children of labourers under ten years, and all old persons over sixty; but there can be no doubt that the establishment of small freeholders has greatly conduced to the increased and increasing numbers. The better class of cottage, with its fruit trees and small vegetable garden, and the feeling of ownership engendered, tend to foster a more wholesome home life and better care of the children.

A very wide system of education has also been granted to the children of labourers since emancipation, embracing one in eight of the population from 1837 to 1856, and one in eleven since the new Acts

came into operation, by which grants in aid of education have been made from the public purse, and have reached in some years to 5 per cent. of the entire revenue. An inquiry into the working of these Acts, whereby the cost of education per head has been about quadrupled, has recently been made by a Government Commission; the result being that education has been proved to have advanced under them, but they stand condemned in the matter of expenditure.

GEOGRAPHY.

MONTSERRAT lies to the south-west of Antigua, in 16° 45′ north latitude and 61° west longitude. It is about 12 miles in length, and eight miles in extreme width, its area being 47 square miles. The whole island is extremely rugged, and consists of a series of rocky hills, with fertile valleys between: possesses no harbour. The principal product, as in many others of the West Indian Islands, is sugar. The chief town is Plymouth.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.

PRESIDENT,

F. A. PICKERING (acting).

VIRGIN ISLANDS.

THE Virgin Islands form a colony about which there is little popular interest and much less knowledge. They stud an archipelago, picturesque to view and dangerous to navigation. Eastward of Porto Rico and on the extreme north of the Caribbean group, they consist of a cluster of islands, many of which are close together and appear from a distance as one long land with varied peaks and promontories. The Danes possess some of them; the more important of which are St. Thomas, St. John, and Santa Croix: the Spaniards lay claim to those near Porto Rico, which certainly belong geographically to that island. Excluding the latter there are some 32 islands in the possession of Great Britain, besides 10 or more crags or rocks of appreciable size, and perhaps 30 rocklets and reefs besides, if we are to trust the "West India Pilot," which places the total of islands and rocks of all nations here at 100.

The largest island in the group belonging to Great Britain is Tortola, which is situate in 18° 27′ N. lat., and 64° 39′ W. longitude. Virgin Gorda is the island of next importance and of most interest; Anegada is little better than a reef, although it supports more inhabitants than the more capable islands of Joel van Dykes, Salt Island, Peter Island, all of which have a good deal of pasture, some growth of wood, and a great deal of fibre aloe.

These islands were discovered by Columbus in 1493, and, so far as they are British, became so in 1666 by the enterprise of settlers from Anguilla, who succeeded to the abodes of the lawless buccaneers.

A Civil Government and Courts of Justice were established in the Virgin Islands in 1773, and formed to some extent the cause of a long diatribe on his woes by the first Chief Justice, who gives a curious and, probably, too coloured picture of the intrigues and jobbing which were the focus of the Constitution at that date. Generally we may sum up his account in his own words, that "life, liberty, property, are hourly exposed to the insults and depredations of the riotous and lawless." Nevertheless he informs the youths of England that if they want a sweet and charming partner for life they must go the Virgin Islands. Can we see here a new derivative of the name?

For purposes of administration the group has for a century belonged to the Leeward Islands, having its own legislature.

In April 1867, an Ordinance was passed to amend the Constitution. It was enacted that a Legislative Council should be constituted to consist of the Colonial Secretary, and the Colonial Treasurer, and not more than three unofficial members to be nominated by the Administrator of the Government, who is to preside at the meetings of the Council, and to have a casting as well as a deliberation vote.

We quote once more the only piece of information which public or private sources has appeared capable of producing hitherto with regard to the group. On October 29th, 1867, the islands were visited by a fearful hurricane, which was most destructive to life and property.

Sir Arthur Rumbold's account is as follows: "The storm lasted from eleven a.m. to three p.m., but the greatest force was from twelve to two p.m. In that brief space of time two-thirds of the miserable tenements of the town were blown down. The gaol is destroyed; the church, the hospital, pier, school-house, Wesleyan chapel, and poor-house are also destroyed; and my own dwelling unroofed and rendered uninhabitable.

"The loss of life cannot as yet be correctly ascertained. I have, however, been officially informed of above twelve deaths in the town—two at Peter's Island, two at West End; while I hear that a quantity of people are killed in other parts of the country, and scarcely a hut or habitation is left standing.

"All was bright and verdant: the withering blast has passed over it, and not a fruit or other tree remains. The works of the few remaining estates are all totally destroyed."

The islands also suffered severely, but not to so great an extent, in the hurricance of August, 1871, and they certainly look now as if they had never recovered it.

Scarcely worthy now of the name of colony, certainly not adapted to the simple administration even of a separate President and Legislature, they convey a complete idea of solitude and out-of-the-world silence. There is no commerce in the proper sense of the term; but trade amounts to nearly £2 per head, and the yield of taxation to some 6*s.* 8*d.* Trade lies with St. Thomas by means of the fishing boats which run through the dangerous channels often at great risk, with their cargo of charcoal, cotton, coarse sugar, sugar cane, a cow, or a calf.

The rocky hill sides of Tortola and Virgin Gorda were originally reclaimed by the exercise of immense diligence, and their profitable cultivation was made possible only by the existence of high prices for sugar. The equalisation of the sugar duties, in other words, the removal of protection, brought the islands down to their proper level as sugar-producing countries. A little rough manufacture of sugar now goes on; but we cannot foretell any future in this direction.

There are three residents in Tortola who are called owners of estates; the mass of the land is in the hands of peasant proprietors; and it is to the gradual education of these men that we must look for a renewal of commercial life. Cotton was grown with success during the American Civil War; but peace opened again the stronger fields of supply. Cotton, however, can be made something of still. As a centre for the cultivation and manufacture of fibre from the aloe or agave, these islands may have a prosperous future before them: this is their strongest hope.

The mines in Virgin Gorda have promised well at times; and some day they may be found richer than they are believed, not only in copper, but also in gold, as the last spurs of the Mexican mountains.

The 5,500 people who inhabit the islands, as against 6,600 in 1871, are the finest men in the West Indies, by their lives, daring and handy seamen trained. If they could be persuaded to recruit regularly our West-Indian squadron, great reciprocal benefit might result.

GEOGRAPHY.

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS consist of a cluster of rocks, to the westward of Porto Rico, to which island they are immediately adjacent. Those of them which belong to Great Britain, are Tortola, Virgin Gorda and Anegada.

Tortola, with an area of 26 square miles, consists entirely of hills, which rise to a height of nearly 1600 feet above the sea level. Virgin Gorda, 10 square miles in extent, is hilly and barren in its eastern part. Anegada, to the northward of the other two islands, is a low-lying coral island, with an area of about 14 square miles.

The heat in these islands is not so great as in the West Indies generally, and the climate is more healthy, but the islands are subject to destructive hurricanes.

Sugar and cotton are grown to some extent. The principal occupation of the inhabitants consists, however, in fishing and rearing poultry.

Roadtown, a small place on the south side of Tortola, is the capital of the group.

BRITISH HONDURAS.

GOVERNOR,
ROGER T. GOLDSWORTHY, C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY AND REGISTRAR,
HENRY FOWLER.

COLONIAL TREASURER,
W. J. McKINNEY.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
WILLIAM MEIGH GOODMAN

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
C. R. HOFFMEISTER.

BRITISH HONDURAS.

BRITISH HONDURAS, the only English dependency in Central America, is deserving of interest both on account of the romance of its past history, and the promise of importance and commercial success which it at present holds out. Situated as it is, between 18° 29′ 5″ and 15° 53′ 55″ north lat., and between 89° 9′ 22″ and 88° 10′ west long., it contains some of the richest and most fertile lands on the face of the globe. To it Europe has to look for the greater part of its supplies of mahogany and logwood, the export of which is alone sufficient to render it a thriving and wealthy Colony; and in addition to the large interests involved in the supply of these and other valuable woods, there now seems every probability of its becoming of equal importance as a centre for the export of the various fruits which grow so abundantly on the seaward slopes of the peninsula of Yucatan.

To the north and south its boundaries are respectively the frontiers of Yucatan and Guatemala, while to the east it is bounded by the Bay of Honduras, and to the west by a line laid down by the convention with Guatemala in 1859, extending from the rapids of Gracias á Dios on the River Sarstoon to Garbutt's Falls on the Belize River, and thence due north to the Mexican frontier. The coast was discovered by Columbus in 1502, in his ineffectual search for a passage to the China Seas, and the interior is the scene of part at least of the famous and disastrous march of Cortes. The extreme length and breadth of the Colony are respectively 174 and 68 statute miles, containing, together with adjacent Cays, an area of about 7,502 square miles. The settlement was originally called Belize, the name now applied to the capital only, and it is by some supposed that it was originally settled by buccaneers who were attracted to the coast by the shelter and safety afforded to them by the extreme difficulty of navigation among the surrounding Cays, and were induced to remain, on the dispersion of their main forces, by the hope of gaining wealth in a more legitimate manner by cutting the woods of the country. The first authenticated report of any English settlers, is however, the account of the shipwreck in 1638, and ultimate establishment in the country of some men who are supposed to have come from Jamaica.

There is the same uncertainty about the derivation of the name Belize, as about the facts of the early history of the Colony. It is said by some to have been called after a celebrated buccaneer of the name of Wallace, whose name as pronounced by the Spaniards is not unlike the name of the Colony. By others again the word is derived from the French "balise," a beacon. Whatever were the origin and early history of Belize, it is certain that in 1671 Sir Thomas Lynch, Governor of Jamaica, reported to the

King that "it increased His Majesty's Customs and the national commerce more than any of His Majesty's Colonies," and that as far back as two hundred years ago it was a flourishing and wealthy settlement. Nor is this early access of wealth and prosperity to be wondered at when we consider that logwood, its staple product, was sold for seventeen times its present value, and that at a time when money was two or three times as valuable as it is at present. The price of a ton of logwood is now about £6; while in the middle of the seventeenth century it sold at £100 per ton.

From this period until 1738 the Government was carried on by annually elected magistrates, but at that date we read that the inhabitants appointed one Henry Sharpe to be their chief or superintendent, and, in addition to the magistrates, George II., in 1741, appointed Robert Hodgson and William Pitt to be Commissioners and Judges of this Colony, Ruatan, and Bonacca. These Commissioners continued to reside in Ruatan, then, as it seems, the most important of the three settlements, until the first treaty with Spain in 1763.

In that year Vice-Admiral Sir William Burnaby, being under orders to watch over the fulfilment by Spain of the terms of the Treaty, granted from His Majesty a "Constitution to the People," giving them power to legislate by public assembly, and to elect magistrates by free suffrage, and from this time until the arrival of Colonel Despard, who was appointed superintendent in 1786, the Colony was so governed. In 1790 Colonel Despard was succeeded by Colonel Hunter, who, however, returned to Jamaica early in the following year, leaving the Colony to govern itself once more, under the protection and supervision of Jamaica.

Meanwhile England had attacked and captured the town of Omoa, by way of reprisal for the breaking of the treaty by Spain, when the settlers of British Honduras were attacked, and many of them carried as prisoners to Havana. It was at this time, 1782, that Lord Nelson in his sloop of war the *Badger* was left to guard the settlement. In 1783 a second Treaty was entered into, and again in 1786, when England agreed to relinquish the Mosquito shore, in exchange for permission to cut mahogany as well as logwood, and also promised to abstain from erecting fortifications, or other offensive or defensive works, thereby admitting that the Colony was, in name at least, under Spanish protection. This last condition of the Treaty was the cause of serious danger to the settlement. The Spaniards soon began to make it an excuse for demonstrations of hostility, and so serious did their threats become that, in the winter of 1796, Colonel Barrow was sent down with civil and military commissions, and assumed the direction of the Government, as Superintendent, on 1st January, 1797. Nor was the precaution unnecessary; for on 10th September, 1798, the Spaniards attacked the harbour of Belize with a fleet of fifteen sail, and after two days severe fighting, were totally defeated in the memorable "Battle of St. George's Cay." Thus it was that the settlement became English by right of conquest as well as by convention.

Such, in brief, is the political history of the Colony in its earlier days, and the only events of external significance which need here be noticed are the definition of its general boundaries, of which a survey has been partially made, and the frequent occurrence of border troubles, connected primarily with the revolt of the Indian population of Yucatan against the Spanish inhabitants in 1849, which has resulted in placing the Indians in

possession of the country to a considerable distance northward from the Hondo, and subsequently with the quarrels in which it has been involved with the Indians of Ycaiché and Santa Cruz, and which are now so happily at an end, for a time at least.

In 1861 it was finally determined to place the settlement in every respect on the footing of a colony, making it subject only to Jamaica. This was done in response to a memorial from the inhabitants, and as a matter of internal regulation only. It was felt that the designation hitherto borne by it had in the course of time become inappropriate; for the repulse of the Spaniards at St. George's Cay and the subsequent revolt of the Spanish dependencies in America, the acknowledgment of their independence by Spain herself, and the relinquishment by her of all exercise or even assertion of dominion in that part of the world, made it clear that what had originally indeed been a British settlement in Spanish territory, was now no longer so, and was entitled to a revision of its name and status as a part of Her Majesty's dominions, wherein, for an unbroken series of years, the territorial and imperial authority of Great Britain had been openly and unreservedly exercised.

A commission was accordingly issued to the officer then administering the Government of Jamaica, Mr. Darling, appointing him to be Governor, and to Mr. Seymour the then Superintendent, appointing him to be Lieutenant-Governor of the Colony of British Honduras; these arrangements taking effect from the 12th May, 1862. The Colony in its physical outlines resembles other parts of Central America, the land being flat and swampy throughout the greater portion of the coast line, and gradually rising as the interior is approached, from the Savannah, through the Pine Ridge, the Cahoon Ridge, and the forest, to the central mountain zone.

The northern district, of which the Hondo forms the natural boundary, is but little raised above the sea; but towards the south the character of the country becomes more elevated, until in the Cockscomb Mountains a height of some 4,000 feet is attained. That district of the Colony remained until 1879 wholly unexplored, when it was traversed by the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Fowler, from Garbutt's Falls on the Belize River, at the western frontier, to the sea coast at Deep River. The country proved to be a succession of valleys and hills, from 1,200 to 3,000 feet above sea level. The westerly portion was an open undulating grassy country, forming magnificent pasturage lands. Towards the coast it was all forest, which was full of valuable timber. No inhabitants were seen, but ancient Indian ruins, consisting of large stone buildings, were discovered. Game abounded in some places, whilst in others no sign of any form of animal life was met with. The soil generally was rich, but a few rugged spots were encountered. Some fine gold-bearing quartz veins were discovered, and other indications of minerals were noticed.

The Pine and Cahoon Ridges afford abundant pasturage for cattle, and the higher grounds would doubtless produce, at altitudes varying from 600 to 2,000 feet, as marketable a quality of coffee as any that is brought for export from the neighbouring Republics, whilst coffee grows on the low lands at the sea level equal to the Liberian species. For the present, however, and until more capital and labour shall have been introduced, and in the absence of roads, it is to the rich virgin soil of the valleys and lower plains that the settlers must look for remuneration from their agricul-

tural pursuits. Upon this soil the most luxuriant crops of sugar are being grown from cane that will ratoon for years.

There seems to be no tropical product to which the climate and soil are not adapted. In the forests and wilds are found the cedar, rosewood, bullet-tree, fustic, lignum vitæ, sapodilla, Santa Maria, ironwood, red and white pine, india-rubber and gutta-percha trees, and the sarsaparilla, cochineal-cactus, Agave or *Pita*, indigo, and many other useful plants or shrubs. The cocoanut flourishes, as does the Cahoon palm (of which the oil will shortly, it is hoped, bring increased prosperity to the Colony), and the ground-nut, locally known by the name of Pinder (*Arachis hypogea*), so extensively grown in and exported from Western Africa, which produces an oil equal to olive oil for domestic purposes, and is also excellent as fodder for horses and cattle; and there are the usual varieties of tropical fruit, cereals, and vegetables, plantains, maize, yams, cassava, cocoa and tobacco, to contribute to the food and enjoyment of the people, and to cultivate for the New Orleans and New York markets.

The climate, though damp and hot, is at the same time singularly healthy. Yellow fever and cholera are but rare visitors, and ague and malaria, though somewhat more frequent during the wet season, are by no means so prevalent as would be expected from the low and swampy nature of the land.

The temperature ranges from 56° to 96° and averages from 75° to 80°. Intending immigrants must therefore be prepared for this comparatively high temperature. The heat, however, is not greater during the summer season than it is in the Southern States, and is, moreover, tempered by the prevailing sea-breezes. The country is not yet developed, and the means of communication is chiefly by water, either along the coast or on the numerous rivers. Some roads and tracks have been made, and the construction of several main roads throughout the Colony is contemplated. Owing to the natural facilities of communication, the coast and riparian lands have been bought up, and the lands now available lie some little distance from water transport, but some of the best Crown lands can still be purchased at one dollar per acre. The Government is fully alive to the want of proper communication, and contracts have been entered into for steamers to run regularly between the capital and outlying districts. Railway schemes are also under consideration. The soil is of the finest quality, and suitable for the cultivation of every description of tropical produce. Wonders have been effected by the industry and perseverance of a few settlers from the United States, who left their homes after the war, and commenced life anew in the southern district of the Colony. Many of them have achieved a comfortable independence for themselves and their families, and the thriving little colony of Toledo is a lasting memorial to the frugality, temperance and determined will of these immigrants from the United States. Their example shows that it is quite possible for white men to work in this climate, and what they have done can be done by others.

The intending immigrant should have some capital to start with: not much, say enough to keep him for nine months, to enable him to live whilst his fruit crops are growing. To reach the Colony he should first find his way to New Orleans, which is the most direct route from the United States to Belize. By applying to Macheca Bros., of 129, Decatur

Street, he can secure his passage at steerage rates for 18 dollars (special arrangements at lower rates will be made for a party travelling together). The voyage to Belize occupies four days; and the steamers *Kate Carroll*, *City of Dallas*, or *Wanderer*, leave every ninth and twelfth day, alternately, the day of sailing being either Thursday or Saturday, as the case may be. Arrived at Belize, board and lodging can be had at one of the hotels for from 1 dollar 50 cents to 2 dollars 50 cents per day, or special arrangements may be made with boarding-house proprietors. Implements and all necessaries can be procured in Belize at reasonable rates, so that there is no necessity for the intending immigrant to burden himself with much luggage. Useful information as to suitable localities for settling can be furnished at the Surveyor-General's office, Belize, on personal application.

The best time to arrive in British Honduras is in November, when the rainy season is generally past, the rivers easily navigable, and the temperature cool. The immigrant will thus have plenty of time to look about him, to select his land, to have the bush cut down and burnt off during the dry months of February, March and April. All tropical produce can be profitably cultivated, more especially bananas and plantains, which are sold to the steamers subsidized by the Government to carry the regular mails.

These remarks are intended for immigrants of the labouring agricultural class. There is room in the Colony for a few mechanics, blacksmiths, carpenters, painters, and the like, but the demand is limited. There is a fine field for fruit planters, and a capital of 500 dollars or 1,000 dollars will enable a man to start a plantation which he can enlarge according to his means. To cut down the bush, burn it off, plant out the ground, and reap the first crop of corn (for which there is a great demand locally), takes about six months, and bananas will yield fruit in nine months.

Trade and Industry.—The trade of the Colony, according to the Blue Book returns for 1884, is represented by a home consumption of imported goods valued at 975,691 dollars, and an import transit trade estimated at 211,999 dollars.

The total value of the export trade of the Colony in 1884 was valued at 1,587,246 dollars, 1,120,351 dollars being under the head of produce and manufactures of the Colony, and 466,895 dollars under that of British, Foreign and other Colonial produce and manufactures in transit through the Colony.

The industries of the Colony consist chiefly of wood cutting, viz.:—mahogany and logwood. The average annual export is 3,000,000 feet of mahogany and 17,000 tons of logwood. The cost of the former, ready for shipment, is from 40 dollars to 50 dollars per 1,000 feet; of the latter from 10 dollars to 15 dollars a ton. Wood cutting operations have now been carried on for over two hundred years, yet the fact remains that the quantity of wood exported maintains a fair average of the transactions for the last one hundred years. Indeed during the last two years the average shipments have been more than doubled. The improved price of mahogany in 1883 stimulated its production, but the export, as in the case of logwood, depends upon market prices.

The manufacture of sugar is carried on in various parts of the Colony, 20 mills are worked by steam and 41 by cattle; and there are 30 stills in

connection with the estates. Beyond the sugar used in home consumption, 2,391 tons were exported in 1884. Canes grow in the Colony equal to any elsewhere; they require less cultivation than is usually the case, and have been known to ratoon for over twenty years. The estates in the Colony have been profitably worked with experienced management, but the present great depression in the sugar market is being keenly felt here as in other sugar-producing countries. The cultivation of fruit for the American market has lately been started in consequence of steam communication having been regularly established under contract with New Orleans. Bananas, plantains and cocoanuts are the staple products, and the price obtained is from 37½ to 50 cents per bunch for bananas; 75 cents to 1 dollar per 100 for plantains, and cocoanuts average 12 to 16 dollars per 1,000. Pineapples, oranges and mangoes are also being shipped in small quantities, and there is no reason why vegetables, such as tomatoes and onions, should not be cultivated for the winter market in the States.

Coffee and cacao estates only require starting, and success can hardly fail to be achieved; coffee *arabica* can be seen growing wild and uncultivated on Mullin's River, a few feet above sea-level, equal to the Liberian species, having acclimatised and adapted itself to its position; and cacao trees are found growing wild in patches throughout the Colony with pods measuring from 6 to 8 inches long and 2½ to 3½ inches in diameter.

Tobacco grows luxuriantly, and cigar manufacture is carried on in a small way with fair results, which should encourage further efforts. A plantation of tobacco has recently been started near Corosal.

Planters under these circumstances have a fair prospect before them. The want of adequate capital appears to be the only drawback to the establishment of large flourishing plantations, for there is soil and climate adapted to the cultivation of all tropical products, and as small plantations pay well under existing conditions, there is no reason to doubt the success of larger operations.

It is difficult to arrive at a fair estimate of the total average under cultivation, as there is no means of enforcing the filling in of the official returns called for. The returns for 1884 are of a particularly unsatisfactory nature, and for this reason the following particulars for the year 1883 are repeated as being nearer the reality:—

2,884½	acres	are under	sugar cane,
8,586½	,,	,,	Indiancorn,
189	,,	,,	rice,
108	,,	,,	coffee,
2,321¼	,,	,,	yams, fruits, &c.

A coffee plantation on a large scale has been started in the Western district, and 30,000 trees have been planted out during 1881, and are now commencing to bear fruit.

Cocoanut trees occupy a considerable portion of the Cays and the coast line, the number of nuts exported in 1884 was 1,554,149.

FACILITIES FOR ACQUIRING CROWN LANDS UNDER ORDINANCE No. 8, 1878.—1. Town lands shall be offered by public auction at an upset price to be recommended by the Surveyor-General of Crown lands and approved by the Governor in Council, and may be put up either by order of the Governor or upon the application of some person, who shall

at the time of making such application deposit ten per cent. of the upset price. Such deposits shall, if no advance on the upset price be made, be considered as part payment on completion of purchase; an amount equal to ten per cent. on the purchase money shall be paid on the fall of the hammer when lands are put up for sale by order of the Governor. In every case the balance shall be paid within thirty days from the day of sale, and in default thereof the purchaser shall forfeit his purchase money and also all right of title to the land.

2. Rural or country lands shall be sold without auction at not less than one dollar an acre; and the minimum acreage of rural sections shall be five acres, but any land so shut in by private lands or other bounds as not to contain five acres, may be sold at such rate as the Governor, on the recommendation of the Surveyor-General of Crown lands, may direct.

3. It shall be lawful for the Governor to issue a licence for five years to persons desirous to occupy waste lands of the Crown, in sections not less than 50 nor more than 500 acres, for purposes of cultivation or improvement, at a yearly rent of 10 cents an acre with right to purchase at any time during the tenancy, or such licence may be renewed by the Governor.

4. A location ticket will be issued to persons authorized to occupy any portion of Crown lands which will be exchanged for a grant on the block of land being surveyed. No costs of survey will be charged, but a uniform fee of five dollars will be charged for every deed of grant, and a fee of one dollar for recording the same.

5. Application to purchase or lease should be made to the Surveyor-General of Crown lands, or at the offices of the paid magistrates in the rural districts, at whose offices forms of application can be had, and a deposit of one dollar is required to accompany an application to purchase, and two dollars and a half on an application to lease.

6. Persons already occupying Crown lands may obtain grants or leases of the same upon such terms as may appear to the Governor just and reasonable, provided His Excellency shall see fit to grant the same after taking all the circumstances into his consideration.

7. Any person found unlawfully occupying Crown lands is liable on conviction thereof to a penalty not exceeding 100 dollars.

LABOUR.—No labourers are to be hired for any period beyond one month without a written agreement.

Agreements can be made for any period not exceeding three years.

A copy of the agreement is to be kept where labourers are working, and to be accessible to them for reference as to its terms and regulations. True and just accounts of wages are to be rendered. If bad rations are supplied, 25 cents a day can be claimed therefor.

There is no restriction as to advances, except that no amount beyond three month's wages can be recovered from a labourer.

Second advances taken or arranged for in fraud of a previous advance render employer as well as labourer liable to a heavy penalty.

No master or employer can compel a labourer to work out a debt, and if he continues to employ a labourer after the expiration of an agreement for the purpose, he is liable to a penalty of 250 dollars.

A labourer is liable to be punished if he refuses to embark or join his work, or perform his task, if he is absent without leave, injures his master's

property, or is drunk, or wilfully disobeys lawful orders, or is guilty of any gross neglect of duty or other misconduct.

Disputed accounts can be settled before a district magistrate.

A contract has been entered into between the Colonial Government and Captain Leitch for a regular mail service between New Orleans and Belize.

The steamers are authorized to await the arrival of the English mails at New Orleans, whence they proceed, three times a month, to Belize and the South.

By Letters Patent, bearing date the 2nd October, 1884, and read and proclaimed at the Council Chamber, Belize, on the 31st of the same month, the officer administering the Government was appointed Governor, and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of British Honduras, thus severing the relationship which had formerly existed with Jamaica.

The form of Government is that of a Crown Colony in which the Crown has the entire control of legislation, while the administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the Home Government.

Laws may be made by the Governor with the concurrence of a Council nominated by the Crown.

The Constitution of the Colony is defined by the Local Act, 34 Vict. (session 3) cap. 1, "to alter and amend the political constitution of the Colony," passed on the 13th December, 1870. This Act was specially confirmed by the Queen, by Order in Council, dated 8th February, 1871, which confirmation was proclaimed in the Colony on the 10th April, 1871.

The Executive Council is constituted under the Queen's Instructions given at the Court at Windsor the 14th February, 1871, and consists of the following members:—

The senior Officer, for the time being, in command of the regular troops in the Colony; the Colonial Secretary, the Treasurer, the Attorney-General, and such other persons as may be appointed by Her Majesty.

The Legislative Council is constituted under the Act 34 Vict. sess. 3, c. 1. The following officers are designated the official members of the Council:

The Chief Justice, the Colonial Secretary, the senior officer for the time being in command of Her Majesty's regular troops within the Colony, not being below the rank of major; the Public Treasurer, the Attorney-General.

The unofficial members are appointed by the Queen, and are not to be less than four.

The Courts of the Colony are the Supreme Court and the District Magistrates' Courts.

The Colony is divided into districts, and the district magistrates have equal jurisdiction in their respective districts.

Contracts under the Labour Ordinance can be attested at the District Magistrates' Courts every day during office hours.

A hospital, lunatic asylum and poor house is maintained by the Government out of the general revenue, assisted by fees from paying patients.

The District Hospital, Corosal, was opened in November, 1883, has accommodation for 6 patients, and is under the charge of the District Surgeon.

A surgeon is also appointed for the towns of Orange Walk and Stann Creek.

In the Lunatic Asylum there is accommodation for 30 patients.

The schools in the Colony are generally denominational, established and superintended by the clergy of some religious body. 1 school is Church of England, 1 Presbyterian, 7 are Roman Catholic, 13 Wesleyan, 1 Baptist and 2 private.

Teachers are granted certificates according to their merits, and receive Government aid under certain conditions.

Since the introduction of the present system of education there has been a gradual but steady improvement annually in the attendance of scholars.

During the last three or four years it has been notorious that capital to a limited extent was available in the Colony for extending agricultural operations, but it could not be so employed from the absence of the requisite labour; the further development of the Colony has consequently been retarded.

As regards any other capital at the disposal of the Colony it seems only proper in considering the question of immigration to draw attention to the quantity of rich virgin soil which constitutes the chief wealth of the Colony. This soil is capable of producing any tropical product in luxuriance, and it is particularly suitable to the growth of fruit, especially bananas and plantains.

The advantage of the geographical position of the Colony is almost incalculable, for being close to such a market as the United States, which will necessarily expand as population increases there, which it does by gigantic strides, a ready and increasing sale for the fruit products of the Colony will be ensured.

As regards the respective advantages of West Indian and coolie labour, differences of opinion exist. The physical capabilities of the former are thought by some to outweigh the cheaper cost of the latter class of labour. It appears from the Colonial Engineer's report on the subject, that the result of the difference is as follows:—

	Coolie.	West Indian.
Cost of importing	$ 75	$ 10
Wages for 1 year		
Coolie, at $ 6.50 a month West Indian, 12.00 ,,	78	144
Medical supervision	3	1.50
	$156	$155.50

But a coolie is indentured for five years, when the advantage appears plainer, viz.:—

	Coolie.	West Indian.
Cost of importation	$ 75	$ 10
5 years' wages	390	720
Do. medical supervision	15	7.50
Return passage or bonus	75	10
	$555	$747.50

A difference of 192.50.

So that to an estate employing 100 labourers, a difference is shown in five years of 19,250 dollars in favour of the coolie labourer, for the difference

REVENUE.

Item.	Revenue.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
		$	$	$	$	$
1	Customs	90,729	93,732	106,149	128,686	120,650
2	Excise Duties	39,681	41,528	37,744	40,729	42,733
3	Fees of Office	4,542	4,642	4,413	5,747	6,317
4	Fines & Forfeitures	3,218	3,920	2,350	3,795	3,574
5	Interest	195	566	842	935	1,175
6	Land Revenue	5,104	6,702	12,672	11,283	10,803
7	Land Tax	11,830	12,686	12,263	12,569	15,515
8	Licenses—Liquor	8,252	9,158	9,542	10,568	9,974
9	Miscellaneous Receipts*	14,889	6,044	5,097	4,682	5,118
10	Port and Harbour Dues	22,807	22,132	23,381	24,150	20,748
11	Postal Service	11,257	11,591	13,124	12,559	18,038
12	Reimbursements to Government	2,507	2,682	2,613	3,426	2,423
13	Sale of Government Property	60	1,246	465	560	345
14	Taxes Assessed	1,101	1,581	1,266	1,700	1,917
	Total Revenue	216,172	218,210	231,921	261,388	259,330

* The Revenue includes under "Miscellaneous Receipts," Surplus Funds which had been invested and were realised as follows:—

1880 . . . . . $7,953

EXPENDITURE.

Item.	Expenditure.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
		$	$	$	$	$
	Salaries of Public Officers	76,979	76,107	80,538	85,645	87,688
	Expenditure Exclusive of Salaries.					
16	Administration of Justice	1,127	1,783	1,627	2,591	2,950
17	Charitable Allowances	677	538	301	326	346
18	Drawbacks and Refunds of Duties	1,454	650	712	714	2,174
19	Education	7,482	8,082	8,207	9,249	9,734
20	Gaols	7,432	7,675	7,676	7,435	9,402
21	Hospital, Asylum and Poorhouse	4,545	4,817	5,007	6,115	8,254
22	Interest	882	438	693	816	890
23	Light Houses	669	669	804	699	1,653
24	Loans—Repayment of	5,554	..	..	..	..
25	Mails	22,247	22,549	25,611	25,214	24,688
26	Military	7,814	30,812	31,198	17,160	31,337
27	Miscellaneous Services	8,615	12,467	11,450	12,639	29,122
28	Pensions, Allowances and Gratuities	5,443	5,307	6,967	6,267	5,932
29	Police	4,655	4,178	8,024	4,258	6,319
30	Revenue Services	4,840	4,868	1,850	1,722	2,689
31	Roads, Streets & Bridges	7,682	9,556	5,743	5,574	15,134
32	Transport	2,947	1,670	3,809	3,220	5,634
33	Works and Buildings	18,569	11,393	22,284	12,074	23,979
	Total Expenditure	189,613	203,559	222,501	201,718	267,925

Exports.

Article.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
Sugar . . . tons	2,316	2,017	1,932	1,736	2,002	2,807	1,931	2,572	2,023	2,391
Rum . . . galls.	5,133	1,192	2,731	2,154	3,700	3,249	5,318	4,209	17,509	22,318
Mahogany . . feet	2,462,336	1,821,307	3,080,817	3,146,582	3,198,375	2,196,751	2,665,729	3,901,805	6,928,168	7,527,879
Cedar . . . ,,	113,613	18,923	77,582	87,129	304,000	241,167	199,838	264,948	469,144	348,341
Logwood . . tons	8,178	14,349	14,882	13,704	12,633	17,057	17,542	18,092	13,363	15,303
Rosewood . . ,,	53	19	30	94	282	415	71	93	21	91
Fustic . . . ,,	76	126	34	12	99	82	2	2	12	12
Ziricote . . . ,,	4	6	20	6	73	..	7	55	54	150
India Rubber . lbs.	..	370	99,361	163,638	146,944	210,511	113,785	135,371	44,598	66,379
Sarsaparilla . ,,	..	2,034	43,659	38,354	38,304	45,126	51,812	105,760	27,965	31,771
Turtle . . . each	168	629	518	325	399	700	500	408	392	516
Cocoanuts . . ,,	276,767	381,000	604,000	698,000	919,000	1,623,000	1,421,817	1,209,658	1,363,819	1,554,149
Bananas . .bunches	..	..	..	..	..	8,958	22,229	25,684	87,039	88,538
Plantains . . each	..	..	..	..	..	177,000	323,700	52,000	1,026,905	591,300
Other Fruits . value	..	..	..	..	..	$ 340	$ 419	$ 424	$ 506	$ 601
Total value of all Exports . . . $	1,012,560	1,032,100	1,142,515	1,175,035	938,365	1,264,275	1,237,013	1,253,163	1,514,348	1,587,246

in cost per head between the coolie and West Indian is 192 dollars 50 cents.

It is the opinion of the Colonists that labourers should be imported and that inducements should be held out to encourage desirable settlers to emigrate to the Colony, and that the necessary funds to carry out these suggestions should be advanced in the first instance by the Government.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—British Honduras, or Belize, is a colony on the east coast of Central America, bounded on the north by Yucatan, on the east by the Bay of Honduras, on the south by Guatemala, and on the west by a straight line drawn from the rapids of Gracias à Dios, on the river Sarstoon, to Garbutt's Falls on the River Belize, and thence northward to the Mexican frontier. The area of the Colony, inclusive of the cays, is 7,562 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The country is, on the coast, low and swampy, but it gradually rises towards the interior. The northern district, having the river Hondo for its north-western boundary, is raised very little above the sea-level, but towards the south the land becomes more elevated, the Cockscomb Mountains, at about 16°45′ north latitude, having a height of some 4,000 feet. This part of the country contains, in its westerly portion, good pasture lands, but towards the coast it is covered with forests of valuable timber. The soil is nearly everywhere fertile, and capable of growing the usual productions of tropical countries in abundance. Recent explorations have brought to light the existence of gold-bearing quartz veins in various parts, and there are indications of the presence of other minerals. The cays, as the islands scattered along the whole coast are termed, consist, in the main, of mangrove swamps without any soil.

RIVERS.—The principal rivers are the Hondo, which forms the limit of the Colony towards the north-west, the New River, the Old or Belize River, and the Sieur or Jason River. The Manatee, the Mullins, the Suttee, the Rio Grande, the Moho, and the Sarstoon, are of smaller size.

CAPITAL.—The principal centre of population in the Colony, and the seat of Government, is the town of Belize, at the mouth of the river of that name. This place has a considerable export trade, principally in mahogany, logwood, and the other valuable descriptions of timber with which the territory abounds.

THE BAHAMAS.

THE BAHAMAS.

GOVERNOR,
HENRY ARTHUR BLAKE.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
EDWARD B. A. TAYLOR, C.M.G.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. HENRY AUSTIN.

JUDGE OF THE COURT OF COMMON PLEAS,
HON. G. C. CAMPLEJOHN.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. ORMOND DRIMMIE MALCOLM, Q.C.

THE BAHAMAS.

THE picturesque account of the discovery of the Bahamas can never be better told than in the words of the chronicler "Herrera." And Christopher Columbus, being now sure that he was not far off from land as the night came on, after the singing of the "Salve Regina," as was usual with Spanish mariners, addressed them all and said, "that since God had given them the grace to make so long a voyage in safety, and since the signs of land were becoming steadily more frequent, he begged them to keep watch all night. That they knew well the first chapter of the orders he had issued to them on leaving Castile, provided that after sailing 700 leagues without making land, they should only sail thenceforth from the following midnight to the next day; and that they should pass that time in prayer, because he trusted in God that during the night they should discover land. And that beside the 10,000 maravidas that their Highnesses Ferdinand and Izabel had promised to him who should make the first discovery, he would give, for his part, a velvet jerkin."

The Admiral had either the sharpest eyes or the highest outlook, and that night he saw a light which seemed to move in the dim horizon. He called to him Pedro Quitierrez, who saw it at once; he called Roderigo Sanchez, who could not see it for some time, but at last all three perceived it. "He saw the light in the midst of darkness," adds the devout Herrera, "which symbolized the spirit and light which were to be introduced among these savages." The sight was seen about ten o'clock in the evening, and at two o'clock in the morning land was actually seen from the *Pinta*, the foremost vessel, by a sailor, Roderigo de Triana, who, poor fellow, never got the promised reward, and tradition says went to Africa and became a Mohammedan. The landing of Columbus on the island of San Salvador has often formed the subject of paintings by artists of the highest rank, and our own Turner has commemorated this great event in a beautiful design engraved in Rogers' poems. In our interesting "Loan Collection" will be seen a water-colour drawing by Signor Olivetti, the eminent Roman artist, and called very appropriately, "The morning of Oct. 4, 1492, Bahamas." Columbus is seen in this fine composition attired, as tradition and his chroniclers assure us he was, in complete armour with crimson velvet over it, and carrying in his hand the Spanish flag with its ominous hues of gold and red. His captains bear each a banner with a green cross and the initials F and Y for "Ferdinand and Ysabil," surmounted by their respective crowns. The timid natives stand before the gorgeous groups of strangers in attitudes of wonder and fear, whilst in the background is seen the fleet of storm-beaten vessels at anchor in the calm and beautiful roadstead. Another beautiful drawing by Her Excellency Mrs. Blake, the

wife of the Governor of the Bahamas, represents the place of Columbus' landing as it now is. It has been painted by this accomplished lady on the spot, expressly for the Exhibition.

Both the Governor and Mrs. Blake, however, after a great deal of minute and well-reasoned observation on the spot, have come to the conclusion that the real place where Columbus landed was what is now called Wátling's Island and not "Cat Island" as has hitherto been usually believed. Columbus in his correspondence distinctly stated that the island where he landed had in its interior a large freshwater lake, and that he was able to row round it in a single day. According to the testimony of Columbus himself, the natives of the Bahamas were "very gentle, without knowing what evil is, without killing, without stealing." They were poor, but their houses were neat and clean, and they had in them certain statues in female form and certain heads in the shape of masks well executed. I do not know whether these were employed simply for adornment or worship. The remains of Aztec and Maya civilization seem less exceptional when we find among these first-seen aborigines the traces of a feeling of art. It is a curious fact that quite lately, whilst pursuing his indefatigable researches after relics, Governor Blake became possessed of a small figure, the first found, possibly one of the figures spoken of by Columbus. The people were, we are told, tall and elegantly shaped, with long black hair and dusky skins. Peter Martyr was especially pleased with the women, "beautiful as Dryades or nymphs from the fountain." They were however, the same authority in a calm mode complains, "rather corpulent." Columbus was enchanted with the beauty of the island, and wrote a letter to the Spanish sovereigns in which he expressed his unbounded enthusiasm. "The loveliness," says he, "of this island is like unto that of the Campagna de Cordova. The trees are all covered with ever-verdant foliage and perpetually laden with either flowers or fruit. The plants in the ground are full of blossoms. The breezes are like those of April in Castile. The nightingales (mocking birds) sing more sweetly than I can describe. It seems to me that I could never quit so enchanting a spot, as if a thousand tongues would fail to describe it, as if my hands, spellbound, would never be able to write concerning it."

Columbus seems to have begun with that peculiar mixture of kindness and contempt which the most civilised men are apt to show towards savages. "Because they showed much kindliness for us, and because I knew that they would more easily be made Christians through love than fear, I gave to some of them some coloured caps and some strings of glass beads for their necks, and many other trifles, with which they were delighted, and were so entirely ours that it was a marvel to see."

The tragedy begins when we find this great-minded man, who if he shares the cruel prejudices of his age, still often rose above its ignorance, writing home to their Catholic Majesties, in his very first letter, that "he should be able to supply them with all the gold they needed, with spices, cotton, mastic, aloes, rhubarb, cinnamon and slaves." Slaves—as many of these idolaters as their Highnesses shall command to be shipped. Thus ended the visions of those simple natives who, on the arrival of the Europeans, had run from hut to hut crying out, "Come, come and see the people from heaven." Some of them lived to suspect the bearded strangers had quite a different origin.

They belonged to the Carib family, as is confirmed by the few bits of pottery and other trifles found in the Bahamas group. They believed in a God—a great spirit—and in a future state of reward and punishment. No trace remains of them now, but a generation or so back a few of them survived at Watling's Island, where caves with inscriptions are yet to be seen. They are said to have been hunted down and shot. Columbus stayed but a few hours in the Bahamas, and sailed almost immediately in search of other and larger islands. But a few years later his followers, who had settled in Hispaniola, came back for a fell purpose, the result of which was that within five years scarcely an aborigine was left alive in the islands. They needed hands to work the mines, for through their cruelty nearly 100,000 natives had perished, and there were no slaves procurable nearer than the Bahamas. The story of the diabolical plot invented to decoy the poor creatures and ship them off into a state worse than slavery, fills many pages of the writings of Peter Martyr and Las Casas. Their beautiful tradition that their departed dwelt in other and even happier islands than their own was used against them. They were told that if they would only embark upon the Spanish ships and go with them, ere a day and night was passed they would embrace their dear ones and dwell with them eternally. The poor souls believed, and meekly went on board the vessels by hundreds. About 40,000 were transported to Hispaniola, some 10,000 others were divided up between Cubagua and the Pearl Coast. Peter Martyr tells us that many of them in anguish and despair, when they found out the horrible deception practised upon them, obstinately refused all manner of sustenance, and retiring to secret caves and unfrequented woods, silently died of starvation. Others repairing to the sea coast on the northern side of Hispaniola, cast many a longing look towards that part of the ocean where they supposed their own island to be situated, and when the sea breeze rises they eagerly inhale it, fully believing it has lately visited their own happy valleys and comes fraught with the breath of those they love, their wives and their children. With this idea they continue for hours on the coast, until nature becomes utterly exhausted, when, stretching out their arms towards the ocean, they take a last embrace of their distant homes and die without a groan. Others met with a less pathetic fate. Overworked, scourged and starved, they died in torment, and it is recorded even that many for the most trifling acts of insubordination were put to lingering and awful deaths by their ferocious taskmasters. So perished the unfortunate aborigines of the Bahamas.

The Spaniards did not trouble the Bahamas much for many years after the discovery. Only once again did they revisit them until nearly a century later; and this time on an adventure of a most singular character, Ponce de Leon having squandered his hard earnings and grown old, heard that on the island of Bimini there existed the famous fountain of eternal youth, which had often been mentioned by the ancients. He accordingly, on his way to Florida in 1512, stopped at the Bahamas, where, upon one of the islands, was an old Indian woman, who assured him that in the Isle of Bimini he would discover the miraculous waters. It is rather curious that he did not ask the venerable lady why, since she knew where the fountain was, she had never taken a draught of it herself, for it must have appeared, even to the most casual observer, strange, that any woman would remain old and ugly, if she could possibly return to her youth and beauty. He spent many months hunt-

ing for the elixir, and was at last obliged to give up the search. The Indian woman was confided to Juan Perez de Oriatra, his companion, and he was commanded to seek the fountain whilst Leon continued his voyage. Perez at last reached Bimini, and the crafty old lady showed him a fountain she declared was that of "perpetual youth," whereupon the entire crew took a bath therein, without any very remarkable result save increased cleanliness. The ancient sorceress got off by declaring that it took a full year for the effects to become visible, and the credulous sailors allowed her to go free. There must have been some ancient tradition about the magic powers of the Bahamas waters, for to this day a superstition, if so you can call a pretty fancy, exists, which declares that if you desire to return to the peaceful isles of June, you have only to drink of the waters there, and so surely will you return before you die. It is a rather curious fact, but as visitors to Rome will remember, a like fancy attaches itself to the Fontana de' Trevi. For 100 years the Bahamas remained uninhabited and neglected, but they still belonged to the Spaniards. The British, however, soon put aside the Papal and Spanish pretensions, and Sir W. Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Hawkins, all made expeditions to the prohibited countries. Queen Elizabeth and King James do not seem to have been much behind the Pope in appropriating and disposing of savage lands and people. In 1578 Her Virgin Majesty bestowed on Sir Humphrey Gilbert all lands and countries that he might discover, that were not already taken possession of by some Christian and friendly power. Spain not being in those days a friendly power, Sir H. Gilbert considered he had a perfect right to the Bahamas, and annexed them accordingly. It would seem that until the English began to settle themselves in Virginia, that they had quite forgotten the existence of the Bahamas, and the Spanish also appear to have ceased troubling the countries they had so rapidly depopulated. In 1612, however, the British adventurers obtained an addition to their two previous charters by which they derived possession of the Bermudas, and all islands within three hundred miles of the Virginian shore. About twenty years later, some of our adventurers, probably on the strength of this charter, made a settlement at the Bahamas, which was destroyed by the Spaniards in 1641. A second unsuccessful attempt to inhabit the island was made in 1666. The advantages of the Bahamas were evidently gradually becoming known. It was evident that they were very conveniently situated for Spanish treasure ships, and it was equally clear that a body of resident wreckers might greatly benefit themselves and at the same time annoy the Spaniards—duties which, after the attempt of the Spanish Armada, English sailors were by no means likely to neglect. In 1667 Captain William Sayer, afterwards Governor of Carolinas, was forced by bad weather among the Bahamas, and saved from shipwreck by the re-discovery of the harbour of the island which Columbus is supposed to have visited soon after leaving San Salvador, and to have named in honour of King Ferdinand, Fernandina. Sayer was not aware that Columbus had visited the island before him, and in return for the shelter its port had afforded him, intended as a compliment to call it by his own name; but being obliged a second time to seek refuge from a storm, he recognised a special providence, and called the island Providence. On his arrival in America, however, he added the adjective "New"—to distinguish it from the island of "Old" Providence on the Mosquito shore. In 1680, Charles II., who had a happy knack of making presents which cost

him nothing, granted the Islands, over which he had no right, to George, Duke of Albemarle, William Lord Craven, Lord Berkeley, Anthony Lord Ashley, and Sir Peter Colleton.

The date of the grant was 1680, but the proprietors had undertaken the regular formation of a settlement before the grant was made.

For some years after this the island of New Providence still remained uninhabitable, until 1684, when Mr. Lillburn attempted a first settlement, but was prevented by the Spaniards. During the Revolution several English families of distinction removed to the Bahamas, and Mr. Cadwallader Jones was named Governor, 1690. He soon, however, quarrelled with his subjects, being a hot-headed Welshman, and they locked him up, until a powerful friend released him and assisted him in quelling the rebellious spirit of the people. This friend was Avery, a noted pirate, who had a great reputation and is the hero of the well-known old play, "The Successful Pirate." Successful to the end, however, he was not, for having secured a bag full of diamonds belonging to the Mogul, who together with his family he met sailing on the high seas, on their way to a pilgrimage at Mecca, he made off with his prize to England and entrusted the jewels to certain merchants, who took advantage of him and refused to account to him for the proceeds, and so the "Successful" fell into abject misery, and died a pauper in a Cornish workhouse. It was during the administration of Mr. Trot, the next Governor in succession to Mr. Jones, the famous Phips-Adderley adventure occurred. Phips came from New England, as did Captain Adderley. Both were of an adventurous disposition and bold enough for any daring exploit which might present itself, and it is probable that it was through some personal communication with the latter, who first went to the Bahamas, that Phips became aware of the whereabouts of the sunken Spanish vessel "wherein was lost a mighty treasure hitherto undiscovered." After many attempts to raise funds wherewith to recover the hidden treasure, finally, in 1687, aided by the Duke of Albemarle and guided by Captain Adderley, he was enabled to bring up some thirty-two tons of silver, besides six other tons which Adderley appropriated for himself. Phips recovered treasure to the value of £300,000. Poor Captain Phips's wealth soon proved a burden to him. His crew, seeing such a hoard of silver come on board, instantly became inflamed with a desire to seize it for themselves. Phips in this distressful emergency made a vow to God that if He would rescue him from so much trouble he would "henceforth devote himself to the interest of the Lord Jesus Christ alone." He was fortunate enough to smooth over the difficulties with his men, and on reaching England set to work to distribute his gains amongst those who had helped him in his enterprise. So scrupulous was he, that out of £300,000 only £16,000 fell to his own share. King James was so well pleased with what he got that he knighted Phips. "Reader, now make a pause," ejaculates his pious biographer, "and behold one raised by God." Needless to add that this honest adventurer was the founder of the great house of Phips, Marquises of Normanby.

The first British Governor of the Bahamas was Mr. Collingworth, or Chillingworth, who arrived in 1670, only, however, to meet with a reception which must have been particularly disagreeable to him personally, although to us at this distance of time it has a decidedly ludicrous aspect. The good man had scarcely set foot on shore ere he was seized by the refractory

inhabitants and conveyed then and there to a ship destined for Jamaica, and started forthwith for that island. The next Governor was Mr. Clarke, who got along quietly enough until it chanced that the Spaniards heard of the peace and prosperity of the island, landed at Nassau and carried off poor Mr. Clarke, and it would seem from a hint in an old paper preserved in the British Museum that they murdered him shortly afterwards.

In a curious old pamphlet preserved in the British Museum library, entitled "Article Depositions of the People of New Providence in an Assembly held at Nassau, Oct. 5, 1701, against Elias Haskett, Governor: London, 1702," we have a very odd insight given us into the manners and customs of the times in a narrative taken on oath by Captain Michael Cole before a Master in Chancery. From these documents it appears that Governor Haskett was a gentleman of a most villanous and tyrannical character. Almost everybody in the island had a complaint to make about his evil conduct, and shortly after his arrival the clergymen of Nassau began to preach against him and to loudly condemn his gross immorality from the pulpits, whereupon he artfully deprived them of their salaries, and even, says the memorial addressed to the English Government by "the God-fearing people of the Bahamas," "hath proceeded to villifie and defame the minister, a man of worth, threatening him with the whip throughout the town, that by these means the Gospel is no more preached here, nor any church services held for months past." The Governor moreover demanded the fifth part of all the Brazeletta wood, and a sixth part of all the tortoise-shell. Never so much as ever before demanded by any Governor. He "seizes all the claret and brandy that is imported into our port for his own use, and most unmercifully doth whip and beat the parish beadle and the tax collector." In short, his iniquities are related in this curious document for over twelve closely printed pages; but the climax is reached when Captain Cole comes upon the scene. This worthy, for his sins, arrived in New Providence, June 26, 1701, and was at once ordered up to Government House, where he saw the Governor, who asked him for all his letters, which he was obliged to give him, and "he began to read mine private letters aloud afore my face." On this, one Mr. Lightwood, "a gentleman of the place, said it was not fair that a man's particular affairs should be known by the public. I chanced to say it was a barbarous act." The Governor immediately pounced on both individuals and boxed their ears for speaking in his presence. About four in the afternoon His Excellency, being out for a walk, fell in with Mr. Graves, King's Collector, in the street, and assaulted him, calling him "a pitiful dog." Captain Cole, on seeing this unjustifiable assault on an aged and respected citizen, flew to the rescue. At this the Governor "swore and damn'd he'd cut my ears off and my nose too." It would be amusing to follow the Captain's narrative step by step, but we have not the space to do so here. Suffice to say he came very near being "murdered by this barbarian," notwithstanding that a certain Captain Doodle told His Excellency "it was not prudent to meddle with an English vessel, for the Captain, if ever he got back home, would tell the Government the truth," a statement which only made the Governor declare "he didn't care a d—n for England." The oddest part of the story is its finale. The Captain, having been beaten and imprisoned, was finally released on the condition that he paid a round sum of money to the Governor as a kind of peace offering. His Excellency was content with

£50 down and "two beaver hats." "I said I had no beaver hats. He said he knew my pilot had one. I said I must pay 50*s.* per hat. He said he did not care if I paid 3,000; but a hat he would have, as his was an old one. I said my owners would not allow me to spend so much money. His Excellency swore by God he'd have one, or I should not leave port. At ten o'clock I sent the white beaver hat to him; he having a black one. I went not near him again, for he's like unto the Devil; and with the addition of drink, oh! he's many degrees worse than Satan, for then his temper is awful, and only equalled by his profligacy." Cole was secretly entrusted by the inhabitants with other documents and petitions against this extraordinary Governor, which are bound up with his own narrative, and the following year Haskett left the Bahamas.

After the rather ignominious departure of Mr. Haskett, the Bahamas experienced some terrible vicissitudes. The inhabitants had chosen Mr. Elias Lightwood as Governor, who seems not to have been gifted with even common prudence, for in 1703 the French and Spaniards surprised the island so completely that they found the neglected fort without a garrison. They blew it up, spiked the guns, burnt the church, sacked the town, and carried off the Governor, with the principal inhabitants, to the Havannahs. Apparently they were not entirely satisfied, for the Spaniards made a second descent in the following October, and captured everything and everybody they could lay hands on. News travelled evidently very slowly in those days, for some years after the island had become deserted, the Lords Proprietors sent out a new Governor, in the person of Mr. Birch. This gentleman found no one to receive him. He encamped in a wood near the ruins of the town, but soon the mosquitoes and the solitude combined drove him away, and he returned, if not a better at least a sadder man, to England. He was the last respectable person who visited New Providence for nearly a quarter of a century.

The history of the island for a good forty years after the departure of Mr. Birch is not very clearly defined. It consists for the most part of a series of piratical and buccaneering exploits, mingled with occasional visitations of the Spaniards, which are not without their romantic element, and which have formed the subjects of several well-known sea novels and tales. Indeed, the Bahama pirates are sufficiently attractive to those of a romantic and picturesque turn of mind, to merit almost a general pardon at this distance of time of their sins of omission and commission. Among them none is more famous than Blackbeard, whose name was years ago a terror along the coast-line from Boston to Nassau, and from Nassau to England. He literally reigned supreme over the islands, and as late as 1804 the old fig-tree was shown at Nassau beneath which this desperado held his courts of justice like a patriarch of old. His countenance was simply awful, rendered still more so by his frightful beard, which he twisted into two long tails. He has left a diary, which is a most curious document.

The state of affairs at the Bahamas had in the meantime become intolerable, and the more respectable petitioned to George I. to take possession and introduce order, and shortly afterwards a reign of respectability set in, which has remained unchanged ever since. Many excellent families arrived, among them several of German origin, and settled in Nassau and its neighbourhood. Various useful trees and plants were

introduced, as, for instance, the pine-apple and the cocoanut. During the American War of Independence colonists arrived in great numbers, men of means and slave-owners.

The history of the Bahamas in this century—at any rate since the emancipation—has been singularly free from any exciting incidents, excepting those which occurred during the last American war, and such as have arisen from the "visitations of Heaven," in the shape of hurricanes and violent storms. Nassau has gradually risen to be a formidable rival, with Americans, to Nice as a favourite winter resort, and the season of 1885–6 included among its visitors many of the most wealthy and prominent of the citizens of the United States.

THE Bahamas consist of a number of islands, rocks, capes, and coral reefs, which stretch from the northern coast of St. Domingo to the eastern of Florida, a distance of more than 600 miles. They stud in hundreds the windward edge of the great banks formed by the subsidence of the sand and soil carried by the rivers of America into the Mexican Gulf. The principal island, which contains the capital, Nassau, is called New Providence, and lies in 25° 27′ north, and longitude 76° 34′ west, extends 21 miles from east to west, and measures 7 in breadth from north to south. It is calculated that the entire Bahama group includes 27 islands, 661 capes, and 2,387 rocks.

The population by the census of 1881 was 45,000. Of this number about 11,000 are whites, the remainder being descendants of emancipated Africans. The large and inhabited islands are, New Providence, Grand Bahama, Eleuthera, Andros, Abaco, Long Island, San Salvador, Rum Cay, Inagua, Ragged Island, Crooked Island, &c. The formation of these islands is calcareous rocks, coral and shell hardened into limestone and much honeycombed. There are no traces of primitive or volcanic rock. This coral formation, being very lightly coated with earth moistened with dew, is amazingly fertile, so that it suffices for a plant to have but one or two feelers caught in the pores of the coralline rock, as it is called, for it to grow and flourish. The shores rise gradually to a hill range on the chief islands, not higher however than between 250 to 300 feet.

No freshwater rivers exist except in the island of Andros.

The islands are, notwithstanding the absence of rivers and fresh-water lakes as already stated, very fertile. The principal woods produced are mahogany, lignum vitæ, iron, mastic, ebony (green and black), braziletto, logwood, satinwood, and many others. A wood called horseflesh is in great repute for ships' timbers, being hard and practically everlasting. In former times the wooden walls of old England were partly formed by timbers cut from Andros. The fruits are oranges, lemons, limes, pine-apples, bananas, plaintains, melons, yams, potatoes, tomatoes, sugar-cane, ginger, cocoanut, &c. Tobacco and cotton and fibrous plants grow readily, but labour and perseverance has so far been wanting to develop these export products. The castor-oil plant grows wild, and the cascarilla and canella alba barks are exported to a considerable extent, as also sponges.

Animal life is restricted to the wild cat, raccoon, and iguana.

Of birds, flamingoes, wild ducks, and pigeons, are plentiful. There are also parrots, geese, humming-birds, cranes, snipe, &c.

Of fish the varieties are innumerable. Some of them by their local

names are as follows:—Grouper, red snapper, market fish, barracouta, hound-fish, porgy, goggle-eye, jack, mutton-fish, shark, stingray, mullet, cray-fish, sword-fish, bone-fish, hog-fish, turtle, angel-fish, June or Jew-fish, dolphin, king-fish, grunts, &c.

The fishing boats, numbering 100, and employing 500 men, are usually of the sloop rig, with a leg-of-mutton sail, and a well for keeping the fish alive. The sponging and wrecking vessels, numbering 500, are fine models, and fast sailers. They are built by the islanders, the timbers being of native hard wood (horseflesh), the planking of yellow pine, from North Carolina, and vary in tonnage from 15 to 60 tons.

Fish are caught with fish-pots, hand lines, and nets. It forms an important article of food, but none are exported with the exception of turtle (*Chelonia mydas*) and the hawksbill (*Chelonia imbricata*), yielding the tortoise-shell of commerce.

The estimated value of fish used in home consumption is £18,000 per annum, and of turtle exported £600 per annum. King, queen, and common conch-shells are exported in large quantities, being used for cameos, and in the latter is found the beautiful pale pink pearl now becoming so esteemed. The value of shells exported is £1,200 per annum, and of pearls £3,000 per annum.

Ambergris is also found on these shores, and sea-cucumber (*trepang*). The value of ambergris exported is £1,000 per annum.

Corals and small shells, which are very beautiful, are largely collected, and find a ready sale among the American visitors, and in England.

The value of the sponge exports for 1883 was £60,000. In 1882 it was £59,033. It is estimated at £60,000 in 1885. The sponge trade gives employment to several thousands of persons and some hundreds of vessels, the sponges being divided into coarse and fine. The principal varieties, in the order of their value, are known as sheep wool, white reef, abaco velvet, dark reef, boat, hardhead, grass, yellow, and glove; and of some of these varieties there are several grades, designated by numbers, all being used for mechanical, surgical, and bathing purposes. Bahama and Florida sponges are about equal in texture and value, but both are inferior to those of the Mediterranean. The vessels employed in sponging are small, with crews of from six to twelve men. About six weeks' provisions are taken on board, and they then coast along the banks and reefs where the water is shallow and generally so clear that the sponges are readily seen, and are brought to the surface by hooked poles, or sometimes by diving. When first brought up they are covered with a soft gelatinous substance as black as tar, and full of organic life, the sponge, as we know, being only the skeleton of the organism. The day's catch is spread out on the deck so as to kill the mass of animal life, which in dying emits a most unpleasant smell. Then the spongers go ashore and build a pen or "crawl" of stakes close to the water's edge, so that the action of the tide may wash away the black covering, in which it is aided by pounding the sponges with sticks. When this operation is completed, the sponges are strung upon small palmetto strips, three or four to a strip, which is called "a bead," when they are taken to Nassau to be sold in the sponge market under certain conditions and regulations. On the conclusion of the sale the sponges are taken to the packing-yard, where they are sorted, clipped, soaked in tubs of lime-water, and spread out to dry in the sun.

They are then pressed by machinery into bales, and in this state are shipped to England or the United States, which of late years is almost the largest customer for Bahama sponges.

The development of the resources of the island leaves much to be desired. They are much richer, much more productive than their inhabitants imagine. Perhaps the wisest laws ever passed by the sagacious Venetians for the benefit of their colonies was one which could not be enforced in our age, but which might be partially carried into effect by a little good-will on the part of the modern colonists themselves. The Venetian Senate in 1470 decreed that all Venetian colonies should, so far as possible, be self-supporting. The inhabitants were to manufacture their own silk, cloth, linen, and gauzes, use their own dyes, and wear jewels and other articles of dress made in the colony. The result of this law was to stimulate the people to create local industries. Now in the Bahamas there grows wild a number of most useful plants, one the pine-apple, the fibre of which will make extremely fine and strong linen, gauze and lace, as fine indeed as any to be procured in Ireland or at Chambery. There is no reason why it should not be utilized, for, with the extensive growth of the pine-apple in the island, the leaves are thrown away. The Petre plant, the fibre of which is so largely exported from Yucatan, is common everywhere in the Bahamas. There is an important future for the colony in this article. It really only requires enterprise for a number of small industries to be created, which singly might not be of great value, but which collectively would add greatly to the advantage of the people.

Since the Fisheries Exhibition, a School of Art has been opened, with the hearty support of the Governor, at Nassau, for the purpose of encouraging and teaching several industries connected with the natural products of the islands. Although at present merely in a state, so to speak, of embryo, it is nevertheless gradually working its way. The results are exhibited, and the teachers and scholars alike may well be proud of their progress. The Italians import our conch shells and carve them into incomparable cameos. At present we cannot pretend to vie with the skilled artists of the most artistic country in the world, but we are beginning, and small beginnings sometimes lead to great things.

The soil is singularly fertile from natural causes, already mentioned, but there is no reason why it should not be rendered still more so by artificial means. At present there is an almost general ignorance of the mere rudiments of improved agriculture, but an attempt to remedy this state of affairs has already been made by the engagement by Governor Blake of a practical agricultural teacher conversant with chemical analysis of soils. Almost every kind of vegetable will grow, and the new line to Florida should lead to large demand; and as to the fruit, there is positively no limit to the extent to which it might be cultivated. The culture of the pine-apple has somewhat decreased of late, but is yielding fairly satisfactory results, and will continue to do so if care is taken to replenish the exhausted soil. The cultivation of flowers for the purpose of extracting perfumes might be introduced with advantage, as the orange flower and many other scented blossoms, owing to moisture and heat combined, are even more odoriferous than they are in the south of France. Then again, there are growing wild in the woods a number of drugs greatly valued by the medical profession, which merit cultivating, amongst the commonest of them being

the castor-oil. Unquestionably there must be a quantity of valuable plants and herbs in these islands which a skilled distiller would soon turn to account. Those who have visited Grasse, in the south of France, alone can form an idea of how important an industry is the perfumer and distiller's, and what immense fortunes are made in this commerce. With regard to other industrial pursuits, that of cattle-breeding at the present leaves much to be desired, although at one time it was remarkably flourishing. Most of the meat is now imported from the United States.

The salt industry ought to be revived. It was formerly one of the most important pursuits of the islands, almost every one of which contains a salt lake. Immense quantities have been made at Exuma, Long Island, Inagua and Turk's Islands, Crooked Island and Ragged Island, but unfortunately the American Government, in return for England's free trade hospitality, has put so high an import duty on this article that they have crippled one of the most important industries of the Bahamas. Only within the past few weeks I learn that the entire population of Inagua, whose salt-works have cost in round figures £20,000 (an enormous sum to the islanders), are about to abandon it from actual starvation and no employers of labour, a result of this action of the Americans which the Home Government ought to use its utmost influence to remedy. It is of vital importance to the islanders.

The city of Nassau is the capital of the entire group of islands. The mansion of the chief representative of Her Majesty occupies the highest position, and commands fine views of the town and harbour. In front of it is a statue of Columbus, and not far distant the excellent Victoria Hotel, which in the winter months frequently accommodates many hundred visitors. An Episcopalian cathedral, several Dissenting places of worship, a public library and other buildings adorn the principal thoroughfares. It is a handsome, well-built city. Mrs. Frank Leslie, in her account of a visit paid in 1878, thus writes: "Social life is not wanting in Nassau during the winter months, when the town is full of 'company;' and the usual series of dances, lawn-tennis parties, dinners and private theatricals, &c., which seem indispensable to winter resorts of this class, are in full activity, but even these terminate at an earlier hour than on the continent; but are none the less enjoyable on this sensible account. To these must be added drives, rides, fishing and boating excursions *ad infinitum*, and, combined with the beauty of the atmosphere, they certainly aid the invalid greatly in speedily recovering lost health. Indeed, so beneficial is Nassau to the delicate that it is no uncommon thing to see a patient actually carried from the boat to the hotel on first arrival, often in a few weeks walking about and enjoying himself, unaided even by a friendly arm. It is said on the best medical authority that there is no place known either in the New or the Old World so beneficial to those who are suffering from nervous diseases. The peculiar balminess of the air and the general tranquillity of the place will soon calm even the most irritated patient, and this without the use of medicines of any kind whatever. The scenery of the islands would be very uninteresting were it not for the wealth of tropical vegetation and the beauty of the colouring, for there are few hills rising above 200 feet. But such is the variety of the foliage and flowers and the brilliance of the atmosphere, that one never feels the monotony which is usually experienced in a flat country. There is not

much of exceptional interest to attract notice, but the visitor never seems to tire of the lovely walks in the flower-covered woods, which are like immense gardens, or of the innumerable boating excursions among the Cays and neighbouring islands, the waters of which are really marvellously clear and transparent."

The maladies of all others which Nassau benefits most are those of the lungs and nervous system, and this is at present the opinion of the leading medical men in New York.

The drinking water of Nassau is of two kinds—that from reservoirs, being stored rain-water collected from the roofs of houses; and that from wells.

The surface drainage of the city is excellent. Water soon disappears, either through the gutters cut in the stone at the road-side, or by percolation. It would hardly be possible to find a stagnant pool of any kind. The streets are very neat, the side-walks and the carriage-ways are cut on the native rock, and are equally hard and clean. All the roads throughout the island are of the same character, constructed by the Government, and kept in repair by convict labour.

The mean temperature during the winter months is somewhat higher than at other health resorts, as is shown by the following comparisons:—

Place.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.
Nassau, N.P.	76·8	73·6	73·6	73·7	75·4	76·1
Savannah, Ga.	58·6	51·5	52·2	54·5	60·4	67·7
Jacksonville, Fla. . . .	64·1	54·2	56·4	56·1	64·2	67·8
St. Augustine, Fla. . . .	64·1	57·2	57·0	59·9	63·3	68·8
Pilatka, Fla.	61·5	56·0	57·2	58·3	64·1	71·2
San Diego, Cal.	56·9	51·7	51·9	53·3	56·0	61·2

But the average mean temperature of a month may be quite deceptive. It is the diurnal and from day to day fluctuations which are of the greatest importance, and have the greatest influence upon the health of invalids. In this particular Nassau has an advantage over any locality on the Atlantic side of the continent.

The revenue for 1885 amounted to £45,466 4*s.* 2*d.*, which with £409 11*s.* 7*d.*, the balance in the Treasury on the 1st of January, 1885, gives a total of £45,875 15*s.* 9*d.* The expenditure for the year, including the payment of outstanding liabilities for 1884 of £32 17*s.* 9*d.*, amounted to £44,762 11*s.* 6*d.*, leaving a balance in the Treasury of £1,113 4*s.* 3*d.* to the credit of the Colony. The liabilities on December 31st amounted to £93 10*s.* 10*d.*, thus leaving a balance of £1,019 13*s.* 5*d.* to the credit of the Colony.

The public debt amounts to £90,197 8*s.* 4*d.*, of which £83,126 0*s.* 2*d.* is in debentures, and £7,071 8*s.* 2*d.* balance to the credit of the Widows' and Orphans' Fund.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION.—The Bahamas Archipelago consists of a chain of islands lying off the Florida coast between 21° 42′ and 27° 34′ north latitude, and 72° 40′ and 79° 5′ west longitude. These islands, mostly of long and narrow shape, number several hundreds, but only about twenty of them are inhabited. The principal are New Providence, Abaco, Harbour Island, Eleuthera, Inagua, Mayaguana, Andros Island, Great Bahama, Ragged Island, Rum Cay, Exuma, Long Island, Crooked Island, Acklin Island, Long Cay, Watling's Island, Cat Island (now known as St. Salvador), the Berry Islands, and the Biminis. The Turks and Caicos Islands, formerly included among the Bahamas, have since 1848 been placed under the Governor of Jamaica.

NATURAL FEATURES.—With the exception of Inagua, which has a few hills, the Bahamas are all low and level, many of the smaller ones being only slightly raised above the sea level. These low lying islands are known locally as keys, or cays. The soil is light, and either sandy or calcareous. The sea to the eastward of the Bahamas is very deep, but on the west side are numerous coral reefs, which render navigation in these parts both difficult and dangerous.

Although the islands are many of them well timbered, they contain no springs or streams, but fresh water is easily to be had by digging. In the islands forming the southern portion of the group are natural salt ponds, which furnish a good supply of that commodity.

The climate is very pleasant and salubrious, especially in the winter season, when the islands are much visited by Americans and Canadians desirous to escape the intense cold which generally prevails at that period of the year in their own lands. Thunderstorms are frequent, and slight shocks of earthquake are occasionally felt.

The principal town in the Bahamas, and the seat of Government, is Nassau, in the island of New Providence.

BERMUDA.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
LIEUT.-GENERAL T. L. J. GALLWEY.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
C. BOYLE.

RECEIVER-GENERAL,
JAMES TUCKER.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. JOSIAH REES.

ASSISTANT JUDGES,
HON. I. H. TRIMINGHAM,
HON. E. HARVEY.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
S. B. GRAY.

BERMUDA.*

THE "Bermudas," or "Somers' Islands," form a group or cluster of about 100 small islands, situated in the Western Atlantic Ocean, in lat. 32° 15′ N., and long. 64° 51′ W., about 580 miles to the eastward of Cape Hatteras in North Carolina, the nearest point of the neighbouring American continent. The distance from Liverpool is about 2,900 miles, from Halifax in Nova Scotia 730, from New York 677, and from the nearest of the West Indian Islands, about 800 miles.

These islands were discovered in the year 1515 by a Spanish mariner, Juan Bermudes, after whom they were called the Bermudas. The Spaniards, however, took no steps to form a settlement on the islands, and they were still entirely uninhabited when, in 1609, Admiral Sir George Somers' ship the *Sea Venture*, while on a voyage with a fleet of eight other vessels, conveying a party of colonists to the new plantations then being formed in Virginia, was wrecked upon one of the numerous sunken reefs which surround the islands on every side. The reef is still called after the name of the Admiral's ship, the Sea Venture Flat.

Sir George Somers died in Bermuda the following year, and his companions, ignorant possibly of the prior claims of Juan Bermudes, called the group, after him, the Somers' Islands. The reports of the beauty and fertility of the land taken home by Somers' nephew, Captain Matthew Somers, induced the Virginia Company to seek an extension of their charter, so as to include the islands within their dominion, and this extension was readily granted by King James I., but shortly afterwards the Virginia Company sold the islands for the sum of £2000 to a new body of adventurers, called "The Company of the City of London for the Plantation of the Somers Islands," and thenceforward for a considerable time the islands bore the name of the Admiral who had led thither the first body of settlers. Gradually, however, the old name obtained the preference, and now the group is generally known as the Bermudas, though still sometimes called the Somers Islands.

The Bermudas may be described as a singular agglomeration of small islands and submarine sandhills and coral reefs, forming together an irregular oval ring, measuring about 22 miles in length from N.E. to S.W., and about 10 miles in width from N.W. to S.E. The external ring, whether composed of islands or of sunken bunks or reefs, is seldom more than a mile in width—and, generally speaking, it is considerably less. The wide expanse of enclosed water which it encircles is broken up and diversified by numberless smaller islands and sunken reefs, and ledges of coral, which

* "From the Colonial Office List."

render the internal navigation extremely intricate and dangerous to all but experienced pilots.

In former days some of what are now known as sunken reefs were probably islands, which have been undermined or washed away by the action of the sea. A solitary rock called the "North Rock," now worn away to a mere column a few feet thick, and about twelve feet high, rising from a wide-spread submerged stone plateau in the midst of the northern reefs, is all that remains at present of an island that is shown on ancient maps as "Old Bermuda."

At present the southern portion only of the encircling ring is formed of islands, the northern, eastern, and western sides being composed of almost continuous reefs of coral.

The islands are said to be as numerous as the days of the year, but not more than one hundred of them deserve the name of islands, the others are mere rocks: even of the one hundred enumerated not more than fifteen or sixteen are inhabited, the remainder being of inconsiderable size. The largest island, generally known as the Main Island, is about 14 miles in length, and about a mile in average width; it contains about 9,000 acres of land. All the other islands taken together measure about 3,000 acres. The town of Hamilton, now the seat of government, is situated about the centre of the main island, where a deep inlet running up for two or three miles into the land from the sheltered waters, enclosed between the encircling reef, forms a safe and convenient harbour for the small vessels which suffice to carry on the island trade.

Next in importance to the main island is the island of St. George, on which stands the town of St. George, so named after Admiral Sir George Somers, whose heart is buried there. This town was formerly the capital of the colony, and, though now shorn of much of its importance by the transfer of the seat of government to Hamilton, is still a town of considerable trade, and its harbour is much frequented as a harbour of refuge by merchant vessels during the stormy periods which so frequently occur in the Western Atlantic at certain seasons of the year. Presenting, as it does, a wide area of land-locked water, with good holding-ground, and a depth sufficient for all ordinary merchant vessels, and being easy of access from the ocean, with which it communicates direct, instead of opening, as does the harbour of Hamilton, into an enclosed inland sea, the Harbour of St. George is frequently crowded during the winter months with large merchant vessels and steamers, seeking shelter during bad weather, or requiring repairs after storms, or in want of supplies of fresh water, or of coal, or provisions.

The other principal islands of the group are: Ireland Island, standing by itself in the centre of the inland waters, and entirely given up for the accommodation of Her Majesty's Dockyard and a number of other naval establishments. Boaz and Watford Islands, intervening between Ireland Island and the rest of the group, are now exclusively occupied by military depôts and garrisons; Somerset, Smith's, St. David's, Cooper's, Nonsuch, Rivers', Port's, and Godet's, are all inhabited by a civil population. The islands form an almost continuous chain: and, with the exception of one break between Somerset and Watford Islands, there is uninterrupted communication by roads and bridges and causeways from St. George over the main island and Somerset, Watford and Boaz to Ireland Island—a distance of about 22 miles.

The climate has long been celebrated for its mildness and salubrity. There is no winter, the thermometer never falling below 40° Fahr., and the summers are never very hot, the thermometer rarely rising above 85°. The summer heat, too, is generally tempered by a pleasant sea breeze. The islands produce a cedar-wood of great beauty and durability, well adapted for the use of the shipbuilder or the house-carpenter, and the finer grained specimens are much in request among cabinet-makers for articles of ornamental furniture.

In former days the inhabitants of Bermuda gave themselves up almost entirely to maritime pursuits. Numerous small vessels of from 200 to 300 tons burden, built by the islanders themselves, of their native cedar, traded between the West Indies and Demerara and the United States, and the British colonies of North America, conducting a very profitable carrying trade between all these countries. Later they extended their voyages, carrying the salt fish of Newfoundland to Italy and Portugal, and taking back the port wine for which Newfoundland became celebrated; or running down to Madeira or Ascension to meet the homeward bound Indian fleet, and taking back cargoes of tea or other Indian and Chinese products to be distributed along the American seaboard.

But the repeal of the British Navigation Laws, the introduction of steam, and the very general substitution of iron for wooden ships, gradually destroyed the carrying trade, which had been so profitable to Bermuda, and now the little maritime fleet may be said to have ceased to exist, and the industry of the islanders is entirely confined to turning to account the small quantity of agricultural land which they possess.

The soil of Bermuda may be described generally as being poor in quality. Of the 12,000 acres comprised in the whole group, not more than 1000 acres can be said to consist of good or fertile soil, another thousand acres may perhaps be described as fair, and a third thousand, though poor and of no depth, may still be cultivated with profit in favourable years; but the remaining 9,000 acres can never repay the expense of cultivation, consisting, as they do, of very hilly and stony ground, partially covered with a scanty herbage, and a scattered growth of stunted cedar trees, or of widespread brackish marshes, overgrown with coarse grass, rushes, and mangrove jungle.

But the climate, combined with the geographical position of these islands, in some measure compensates for the smallness of the area of fertile ground. There being nothing to fear from winter frosts, the ground can be sown and planted at any time from the end of August to the end of March, and the crops can be gathered and shipped off to New York in the months of April, May, and June, when the corresponding American produce has as yet scarcely shown itself above ground, and the Bermudians, taking advantage of this peculiarity of their climate, raise very large crops of early potatoes, onions, tomatoes, and beetroot, with which they keep the New York market supplied at a time when those vegetables cannot be obtained from any other quarter, and thus command very high prices for their produce, and are enabled to maintain their families in comfort upon comparatively small portions of ground.

Very little use is made of the soil in Bermuda after the spring crops have been grown; a few melons, pumpkins, or sweet-potatoes may be raised here and there, but by far the greater part of the ground is allowed

to remain idle during the hot summer months; anything that could then be grown in Bermuda can be imported so much more cheaply from America that it never pays a Bermudian agriculturist to produce it. Very little also of the spring produce of the island is consumed by the inhabitants, it is too costly; nearly all the early vegetables raised in Bermuda are exported, and the whole population, civil and military, depends for its subsistence upon food supplies obtained from abroad. All the bread and meat, and nearly all the vegetables consumed in the islands, are imported from New York, and all the food, horses, and cattle are brought from that or other quarters. Bermuda being thus entirely dependent upon America for its supplies of provisions, any interruption to its intercourse with the neighbouring continent would be certain to cause great distress.

Representative Government was introduced into the Colony in 1620, but the charter of the Bermudian Company of London was annulled in 1684, and since then the Governors have always been appointed by the Crown, and the laws of the Colony have been enacted by a local legislature, consisting of the Governor, the Legislative Council, and the House of Assembly.

The Governor is assisted by a Privy Council, consisting at present of nine members named by the Crown, the same nine members constituting the Legislative Council. The House of Assembly consists of thirty-six members, four of whom are elected by each of the nine parishes. There are 854 electors, the electoral qualifications being the possession of freehold property of not less than £60 value. The qualification for a member of the House of Assembly is the possession of freehold property rated at £240.

The importance of the Bermudas as a naval station began to be felt towards the end of the last century, during the wars which we had to wage first with the revolted provinces in America, and afterwards with the French and Spaniards.

It was more fully recognized during the short war between England and the United States in 1812, and is now universally acknowledged.

The position of the islands, situated in mid-ocean, at almost equal distance from the West Indies, the eastern seaboard of the United States, and the Dominion of Canada, including our great naval station at Halifax, presents many advantages for the establishment of a Naval Station in the Western Atlantic, and the peculiar conformation of the group affords special facilities for the creation of a naval depôt and fortress of the first class. A broad and almost continuous barrier, formed of a succession of islands and sunken coral reefs, and measuring about 50 miles in circuit, encloses an internal oval area of about 120 square miles of water, access to which from the outer ocean can only be gained through a few long, narrow, tortuous channels, in which are interspersed not a few clusters of sunken coral rocks. Ireland Island, which contains Her Majesty's Dockyard, and the other naval establishments, occupies rather a central position in the midst of this enclosed sea, so that a hostile cruiser cannot approach on any side within five miles of it without having first made its way through the encircling reefs, and even when that great obstacle is surmounted, the approach to the dockyard is still difficult and dangerous, for the enclosed inland sea itself is thickly studded with irregular groups and banks, and clusters of sunken coral reefs, which leave only a few

narrow channels that can be traversed with safety by vessels of any considerable size.

The principal channel through the outer reefs—the only one that is now used by merchant vessels, and the only one that is safe for large ships—is that which is called "The Narrows," which sweeps round the northern and eastern sides of St. George's Island, at a distance of about half a mile from the shore. This channel is about two miles in length, and is very narrow and intricate, so that vessels must move through it very slowly and with great caution. It is commanded throughout its whole length, as are also the approaches to it from either side, by numerous batteries mounting very heavy guns behind casemated iron shields. In war time the channel would also be defended by torpedoes or submarine mines. As a naval station, therefore, Bermuda may almost be considered to be beyond the reach of any attack.

From the year 1844 to the resignation of the Sea of Newfoundland by Bishop Kelly in 1877, the Bermudas were attached to the episcopal diocese of Newfoundland. They then remained for some time without a Bishop, but in 1879 the present Bishop of Newfoundland, the Right Reverend Llewellyn Jones, was elected Bishop of Bermuda, and as a general rule it is anticipated that he will spend every second winter in these islands.

The islands are divided into nine parishes, of which the parish of St. George's constitutes a living by itself, the remaining eight parishes being divided into four livings, of which each incumbent officiates in two parishes. There is also an episcopal extra-parochial church in the town of Hamilton.

The Wesleyans, the Presbyterians, and the Roman Catholics have erected several chapels in Bermuda, and the Episcopal Methodists have recently made some progress among the people, but 70 per cent. of the white, and about 65 per cent. of the coloured population still belong to the Church of England.

The revenue, expenditure, and trade of the Colony will be seen from the following comparative statements:

	Revenue. £	Expenditure. £
1882	29,724	29,138
1883	28,564	31,056
1884	28,769	29,827

	Imports. £	Exports. £
1882	277,401	109,155
1883	238,701	91,103
1884	283,440	88,622

TONNAGE OF VESSELS.

	Entered. Tons.	Cleared. Tons.
1882	94,387	95,286
1883	112,843	111,908
1884	112,021	119,493

			White.	Coloured.
The Population according to the Census taken in				
1871	was	12,121	4,725	7,396
1881	,,	13,948	5,384	8,564
1884	,,	14,888	5,957	8,931

No better description can be given of the beauty and resources of these "Fortunate Isles," than in the words of Andrew Marvell, the friend of Milton :—

"Where the remote Bermudas ride
In the ocean's bosom unespied,
From a small boat that rowed along,
The listening winds received His song :—
'What should we do but sing His praise,
That led us through the watery maze,
Where He the huge sea monsters wracks
That lift the deep upon their backs,
Unto an isle so long unknown,
And yet far kinder than our own?
He lands us on a grassy stage,
Safe from the storms and prelate's rage;
He gave us this eternal spring
Which here enamels everything,
And sends the fowls to us in care
On daily visits through the air.
He hangs in shades the orange bright
Like golden lamps in a green night,
And does in the pomegranates close
Jewels more rich than Ormuz shows:
He makes the figs our mouths to meet,
And throws the melons at our feet;
With cedars chosen by His hand
From Lebanon He stores the land;
And makes the hollow seas that roar
Proclaim the ambergris on shore.
He cast (of which we, rather, boast)
The Gospel's pearl upon our coast;
And in these rocks for us did frame
A temple where to sound His name.
Oh, let our voice His praise exalt
Till it arrive at Heaven's vault,
Which then, perhaps, rebounding may
Echo beyond the Mexique bay!'
Thus sang they in the English boat
A holy and a cheerful note:
And all the way to guide their chime,
With falling oars they kept the time."

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—The Bermudas, or Somers Islands, are a group of about 100 small islands in the North Atlantic Ocean, some 580 miles to the eastward of Cape Hatteras in North Carolina. Their precise position is in latitude 32° 15′ north, and longitude 64° 51′ west. The total area of the group is about 41 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The islands, which lie along the south-eastern side

of a coral reef, and are themselves of coral formation, are very low, the highest land on Long Island, or Main Island, as it is sometimes called, the largest of the group, only attaining an elevation of 240 feet, while many of the smaller islets barely emerge from the surrounding waters. None of the islands have either springs or streams, and the inhabitants are consequently dependent for fresh water upon such supplies as can be collected, during the rains, in tanks provided for the purpose. Only about 15 or 16 of the whole number are inhabited. The climate is very equable, and all kinds of fruits and vegetables are grown in great abundance.

Towns.—The principal town of the Bermudas, and the seat of government, is Hamilton, upon the coast of Long Island. The town of St. George, on an island of the same name, in the north-eastern portion of the group, was at one time the capital, and is still a place of considerable trade. The possession of an admirable harbour causes this island to be much resorted to in bad weather by vessels of all descriptions, which run here for shelter. Ireland Island contains an extensive dockyard and other naval establishments. Boaz and Watford Islands are occupied exclusively by military depôts and garrisons. The other inhabited islands have a civil population.

CAPE COLONY.

GOVERNOR, HIGH COMMISSIONER, AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF
RIGHT HON. SIR HERCULES G. R. ROBINSON, G.C.M.G.

PREMIER,
HON. THOMAS UPINGTON, Q.C.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. J. TUDHOPE.

TREASURER OF THE COLONY,
HON. J. GORDON SPRIGG.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. THOMAS UPINGTON.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
G. W. AITCHISON.

COMMISSIONER OF CROWN LANDS AND PUBLIC WORKS,
HON. COLONEL F. SCHERMBRUCKER.

SECRETARY FOR NATIVE AFFAIRS,
HON. J. A. DE WET.

UNDER SECRETARY,
J. ROSE INNES, C.M.G.

SPEAKER HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY,
SIR DAVID TENNANT.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. SIR J. H. DE VILLIERS, K.C.M.G.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. E. DWYER; HON. C. T. SMITH; HON. SIR J. D. BARRY;
HON. S. G. A. SHIPPARD; HON. E. J. BUCHANAN;
HON. S. T. JONES; AND HON. P. M. LAURENCE.

AGENT-GENERAL IN LONDON,
SIR C. MILLS, K.C.M.G.
Secretary: SPENCER TODD, C.M.G.

IV. THE AFRICAN COLONIES, MAURITIUS, MALTA, CYPRUS & FALKLAND ISLANDS.

London: Wm. Clowes & Sons, Ltd.

CAPE COLONY.

THIS Colony, as its name implies, is named after its principal headland, the Cape of Good Hope, at the southern extremity of the African continent. The story of the doubling of this Cape in 1487, and the attempt to reach the East Indies that way by the celebrated Portuguese navigator Bartholomew Diaz, is familiar to most persons; and how, encountering exceptional stormy weather, he was obliged by his crew to return after reaching the great Fish River, to his own extreme mortification and consequent failure to attain the object of his expedition—these facts will also be readily called to the memory. The failure however was not of long duration, for two years later another Lusitanian navigator, Vasco de Gama, touched at the Cape, and accomplished the passage to the east.

South Africa, thus discovered, seemed to call for no particular notice on the part of the great nations of Europe, and it was only occasionally visited by the Portuguese, English and Netherlanders, when on their voyages to India. Its permanent settlement was not attempted until 1652, in which year the Dutch East India Company took possession of Table Bay, with the object of thus being in a position to afford supplies to their passing ships. The Netherlands Government encouraged its colonization by every means in its power, and at once appointed a governor, Jan A. van Riebeek, with about a hundred soldiers and others, to proceed to the settlement, giving also an oversight to their agriculture and stock rearing. The new colonists soon managed to obtain cattle and sheep by barter from the aborigines, and made some kind of exploration; but, with the characteristic reserve of the Netherlandish authorities, not many particulars of the settlement are obtainable, except that the early colonists were usually discharged men from the army and navy—preference being given to those who were married—that they were required to remain in the Colony for ten years and their children for twenty, and that a monopoly of the trade even of the settlers was secured to the Dutch East India Company. The Colony progressed very slowly at first, for in 1670, eighteen years after its foundation, we find that there were only 89 white settlers, but an influx of Netherlanders took place fourteen years after, and in 1688 some two or three hundred Italian and French refugees appeared on the scene, the descendants of whom are still scattered over the Colony, more especially near the Berg River valley, along which their ancestors were located. The history of the country under the Dutch East India Company's rule, remarks Mr. Noble, "shows that there was a continuous but vain struggle on the part of the free burghers to obtain some relaxation of the capricious and oppressive fiscal and sumptuary enactments of the Government, which not only excluded them from all participation in foreign trade, but hampered them in all

their internal transactions." Unable to endure this vexatious system any longer, many of the inhabitants crossed over to the "Karroos," or inland plains, away from the reach of the Company's officers. This misunderstanding, however, did not at first result in anything injurious; on the contrary, it opened up new settlements, and led to an amelioration of some of the objectional features of the Company's rule, but ultimately it caused much inconvenience and danger from the isolation of the colonists among the natives, who often regarded them with anything but friendly eyes, and lawlessness and outrages broke out among the least reputable of the settlers. It may be of interest to note in this connection, that in the year 1780 the white population of this vast region was 6,600 men, 1,931 women and 1,287 children. The period of the Company's rule was now drawing to a much wished-for close, and the forcible occupation of the Colony by the English, on the 16th September, 1795, put an end to it entirely.

The Cape Colony thus occupied has been under English rule ever since, with the exception of an interval of three years, 1803–1806, when the peace of Amiens restored it for a short time to the Republic of the Netherlands. The early governors who ruled the settlement from 1793 to 1805 were General Craig, Earl Macartney, Sir F. Dundas, and Sir G. Young. During the period between the annexation and its temporary restoration they managed to introduce some much-needed reforms, that especially deserving of mention being the abolition of all trade monopoly, with the impetus this gave to the country's development.

On the 19th January, 1806, the Netherlandish Governor, after a short and vigorous resistance, surrendered to the English general, and thus the rule of our rivals at the Cape passed off the scene; and at the Peace of 1815 the settlement was finally ceded to King George III.

The year after the re-occupation of this Colony by the English was signalised by the abolition of the slave trade, and by the year 1811, Lord Caledon, the new Governor, had made some very much needed and beneficial reforms, among which may be mentioned the establishment of an annual circuit court in the inland districts, thus vindicating the majesty of the law and the royal authority in regions where they were but too apt to be disregarded; postal communication was established throughout the Colony, and regulations were issued ameliorating the condition of the Hottentot inhabitants.

The work of organisation was continued with vigour by the next Governor, Sir John Cradock, by whom the land laws were readjusted and security of tenure established, facilities for the acquisition of their holdings being at the same time afforded to the settlers. Another work to which Sir John Cradock addressed himself was to free the country between the Fish and Sunday's Rivers from the ravages of the Kafir tribes, and early in 1812 the invaders were driven across the Fish River, and kept within their own boundary until they settled down. The quiet, however, did not last long, as the Kafirs soon afterwards attacked the military settlement at Graham's Town, but were driven off with great loss. The next Governor, Lord Charles Somerset, by means of negotiations made during two visits to the frontier in 1815 and 1817 respectively, placed the relations between the settlers and the natives on a more satisfactory footing by the prescription of a piece of neutral ground; and another result of his visit to the frontier was the introduction in 1820 of immigrants from England by means of a grant of

£50,000 from the Imperial Government, the majority of the new settlers landing at Port Elizabeth. Lord Charles Somerset held the governorship for the period of twelve years, and did much to promote the development of the country, but for all this he was not popular, owing to the restrictions he placed on the liberty of the press and the right of public meetings for political purposes—in fact, the colonists made such strong complaints on this head that a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into their grievances, the result of whose labours was the initiation of popular representation and government, by the appointment of an Executive Council, as well as a more effective system of judicature and the abolition of several monopolies of which the settlers complained. Education too met with considerable attention at the hands of this Commission, and one of its recommendations was that instruction in the English tongue should be carried on wherever practicable, and that this language should be used in all official proceedings and business.

In 1834 the great Kafir war broke out, and was attended with much destruction of property along the borders, and many of the settlers were murdered in cold blood. The cause of this melancholy event will never probably be known with exactness: on the one hand there seems to have been a want of consideration for the native race at headquarters, and a smouldering grievance in the breasts of the Kafirs at the encroachment of the white man, which only needed a few further acts of aggression to develop into a full blaze. Fortunately the Kafirs, instead of following up their first success by marching on Cape Town, took to plundering the border settlements, and thus gave the Government time to meet the invading hosts, who were after some trouble reduced to submission, and the King of England's authority extended to the Kei River; but the home authorities disallowed this extension. This year the Ama-Fingo clan of the Zulu tribe, having been released from slavery, migrated to the Cape, where they have ever since constituted a most loyal section of the population.

The years 1835–36 witnessed the first celebrated "trek" or migration of the Netherlanders or Boers settled in the Colony, owing to their dissatisfaction with some of the enactments of the Government. These were, briefly, the forcible emancipation of their slaves, the losses they sustained in the war, and the provisions of the Order in Council of 1834, under which a Hottentot was placed on an equal footing with a Dutchman. In the years named some 5,000 to 10,000 thus went away, and journeyed to the country north of the Orange River, one party of them being cruelly massacred by Dingaan, king of the Zulus. This migration has been the cause of constantly recurring troubles and warfare, both with the Boers themselves, and the natives acting under their influence. For some years after this "trek" alternate policies of conciliation and coercion were adopted, the result being the cession to the Boers of the Transvaal State by the Sand River Convention of 1852, and the Orange Free Territory in 1854.

The year 1853 witnessed a most important event, viz., the granting of representative Government; and the first Parliament of the Colony met at Cape Town in 1854. The ten years succeeding this occurrence was followed, as may well be imagined, by the most vigorous system of development; measures were taken for protecting the frontier and for developing the internal wealth of the Colony; and more efficient methods of sea and land communication were inaugurated, roads and bridges were constructed,

immigration was fostered, railway construction begun, and telegraphs brought into use. In short, the able administration of Sir George Grey was signalised generally by advancement in the arts of peace and by strengthening the defensive resources of the Colony; nor were the needs of the important section of the community which leads a seafaring life neglected, lighthouses, harbours and docks being constructed with a lavish hand in all places where they could be useful.

British Kaffraria was annexed in 1865, and incorporated with the Colony, and three years after the Basutos voluntarily came under English rule, their territory being formally annexed three years later. Diamonds were found in 1867, and the consequent rush to the diamond-fields led to the annexation of more territory in 1877; and in the same year an act of the Imperial Parliament sanctioned the federation of the several Colonies of South Africa.

The climate of the Cape partakes of the peculiarities of the cold, temperate and tropical zones, and is generally speaking not a hot one, the warmest weather in January being quite endurable, owing to the dry atmosphere and the cooling winds which prevail; and in July, which is the coldest month, there is never any inconvenience from cold. The scenery of the Colony is very fine, especially in the month of September. Dr. Ross remarks that "The fields are then covered with verdure, the hills and plains are brilliant with patches of bulbs and heather in full bloom, and all nature is gay with the surpassing freshness and variety of spring. The air is then truly intoxicating; while the purity and transparency of the atmosphere is such as literally to astonish those who have been only accustomed to judge of distance through the medium of haze." The average annual rainfall in the vicinity of the capital is about 23 inches.

The Constitution originally established by the Order in Council of 11th March, 1853, and enlarged by the Responsible Government Act of 1st December, 1872, now consists of a Governor (who is also Commander-in-Chief), a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. The Executive consists of the Colonial Secretary, Secretary for Native Affairs, Commissioner of Public Works, Treasurer-General and Attorney-General, who is also Premier.

As the Constitution is based upon that existing at home, and the rules of procedure in both Houses are taken as much as possible from those of the Imperial Parliament, no detailed reference to it is necessary. By a law passed in 1882, speeches in the Cape Parliament may be made either in English or Dutch.

Cape Colony contains two dioceses—Cape Town and Graham's Town—the first-named being the metropolitan diocese. The Church of England is very popular in South Africa, and the colonists are much attached to it. Its organisation is said to be most perfect, a quality largely owing to the great ability of the former metropolitan, Dr. Gray of Cape Town, who, notwithstanding a want of deference to the English Ecclesiastical Courts, was firmly and devotedly attached to the Church in South Africa. Since his death, however, a desire has been manifested to keep a very close connection with the home authorities, and accordingly a request was sent to England in 1874 for the selection of the new bishop. This was readily acceded to, and the Primate, with the Bishop of Edinburgh, nominated a successor, who was consecrated in due course. The Church adherents

numbered last census over 45,000, of whom 26,000 were white and 19,000 coloured.

The Roman Catholic Church numbered at that census some 7,000 or 8,000, nearly all being white settlers. The Dutch Reformed Church is strong among the Boers, numbering at last census 132,000, of whom 16,000 were coloured, and the various Nonconforming sects are well represented both as to numbers and to vigour of work.

At the beginning of the century the products of the Colony were limited to grain, cattle, and wine. There are no records of the quantities produced, but the fact that the total exports of the Colony at that time reached to only £15,000 shows that the quantities could not have been large. At present the exports of colonial produce extend over a considerable variety of articles, and include aloes, argol, bones, buchu leaves, coffee, copper ore, ostrich feathers, dried fruits, guano, angora hair, hides, horns, skins, tobacco, wine, and wool, as well as diamonds, of which special mention will be found hereafter.

A very important and interesting industry of the Cape is ostrich-farming, for particulars concerning which we are indebted to the valuable manual on South Africa published by Messrs. Silver and Co. :—

"For some time before domestication was attempted, the ostrich was a rare bird in the Colony, except probably in the arid wastes of Namaqualand and Clanwilliam, and the chief sources of the feather supply were hid away in the far interior, to the north and north-west of the Free State and the Transvaal. The hunter, whether white or black, pursued his murderous calling during the proper season for the sport, which was also a business; and, also, at the proper season for barter, the trader appeared at some established outspan with his creaking waggons, laden with guns, powder, blankets, wire, beads, brandy, and other attractions for the native eye and appetite, and a brisk exchange took place—ivory, karosses, rhinoceros horns, and hippopotami teeth, as well as ostrich feathers, being gladly accepted for Western merchandise. The traffic still goes on, for ostrich-farming has not, as yet, made interior *smarsing* unprofitable. The departure of a great trader, with his train of, perhaps, half-a-dozen waggons, all of them gaily painted and cosily covered in with snow-white canvas, is an event in some Cape towns. As the drivers 'clap' their long whips, and the teams—eight pairs of oxen labouring at each wain—move briskly over the way, all eyes are upon them with the look which is given to far-voyaging ships when they leave port. But the return excites more attention, as then every waggon is full of precious and various wealth, the result of a long and risky venture. Not infrequently the costly wares are sold by auction on the morning market, and the tusks, teeth, skins, horns, and feathers, are spread out upon the ground as if they were no better than field-stuff or garden produce. It is no uncommon thing to see waggon cargoes worth £10,000 exhibited for sale in this unceremonious way, amidst a crowd of onlookers, some of whom are as wild as the animals which produced the barbaric spoils, and as black as a coal. It will take many years of feather-growing to put a stop to the rude traffic of the interior trader. Indeed, as long as the wild ostrich is to be found anywhere south of the Zambesi the hunting and barter system will continue, as ivory will be sought after, and the feathers will be taken by tusk buyers as part of the bargain. No attempt has, as yet, been made by Cape Colonists to domesticate the

elephant for the sake of his tusks; and, as the waggons go up for one commodity, they may as well bring down another. How long it will take to complete the work of extermination it is impossible to say, as the rapid increase of the produce of the farms will, no doubt, tend to lessen the inducements to hunting.

"The plans adopted by farmers in meeting the first requirement of domestication—that of limitation—have been various. One well-known breeder made his compound, not more than eight acres in extent, suffice for thirty birds. It would, however, be misleading to allow this fact to be looked upon as anything but an exception to the rule that the ostrich needs considerable room. This breeder was obliged to sow his eight acres with lucerne, in order to provide food for his birds. Even with that provision, and with every allowance made for an unusual aptitude for domestication on the part of this gentleman, it cannot but be considered that he was very much indebted to fortune for his success. Other breeders have given their birds the run of the lands, trusting to careful herds, and the attractions of a daily feed of mealies at the homestead. A breeder of Upper Albany at one time gave an enclosure of five hundred acres to twenty-three young ostriches, while another at Colesberg had about ninety within one thousand acres, walled round with stone; and he has now an enclosure of nearly five thousand acres for his large flocks. A gentleman at Albany has his farm divided into about seven or eight large and well-fenced paddocks. It may be considered a settled law of ostrich-farming that free space and good fences are essential to success. Sheds, kraals, and houses are also necessary, not only for safe-keeping, artificial hatching, and feather-gathering, but also for shelter from the cold and wet. Exposure is very hurtful to the birds, if weak or out of condition.

"The birds begin to feather at eight months from hatching, but the yield is then poor and of little value. In another eight months there is a fresh and improved crop, and the plumes become better with each season. The art of separating the feathers is one which requires practice. Plucking is not looked upon with favour, as it irritates and produces fever. Nipping, or cutting, is considered to be safer. The feathers are severed close to the point of insertion, and the stumps are allowed to remain until they can be easily removed." Dr. Atherstone says: 'My own opinion is that the best plan is that adopted by a farmer in the Western Districts, who had seventy or eighty ostriches, and found the following plan the best and most convenient. To show me the whole process he had the whole flock driven into the waggon-house, and we then insinuated ourselves by wriggling amongst the densely packed birds. He had previously shown me what to do in case of any bird proving vicious; they are perfectly in your power if you seize them by the neck; you may choke them as far as you please until you find them powerless, and you can then run away. Having got with my friend into the middle of the crowd, so packed that they were unable to move, he quietly selected two or three of the best feathers, and with a curved sharp knife in his right hand, the blade protected by lying flat against his finger, he pressed it down as near to the root as he could, and cut it off obliquely upwards. The bird was quite unconscious of the operation, standing perfectly still as he handed several to me. He then picked out a blood-feather, very beautiful, which, on being cut, bled a little; but the sharp knife separated it without being felt. In a month or six weeks he took out all

the stumps, if they had not fallen out. By this means the health of the bird is not impaired; no irritative fever is produced, as in the case of my brother's birds; and you can select only the feathers that are in prime condition, leaving the others to ripen in due course." The average produce of a full-grown bird is about one-fourth a pound weight; but the yield is entirely governed in quantity and quality by the health and vigour of the ostrich. Each proper bird is estimated to yield £15 a year on the average. Still, some farmers are obliged to be content with £8 or £9 from each bird per annum. As the feathers ripen at the time of incubation, and are injured by the process, the artificial incubator, by releasing the birds from duty on the nest, is of especial value.

Ostrich feathers vary very much in value. Chicken plumes are worth £5, and blood feathers from £35 to £45, or even £60 a lb. This, however, is a matter of the markets.

In 1875 there were nearly seventy million vines planted, yielding four and a-half million gallons of wine, and over one million gallons of brandy; 1,688,000 bushels of wheat, nearly half a million bushels of barley, quarter of a million bushels of rye, one million bushels of oats, and the same of oat-hay; over three million lbs. of tobacco, two and a-half million lbs. of dried fruits, and 340,000 lbs. of aloes were produced. Indian corn and millet are also very largely raised. At the same period the Colony possessed nearly eleven million sheep, 22,000 ostriches, over three million goats, and 1,112,000 horned cattle. Mohair first appears as an article of export in 1872, the quantity shipped being 1,036 lbs. In 1884 four and a-half million lbs. were exported. In 1857 the value of feathers exported was less than £10,000; in 1884 the export had risen to £966,480 in value. In 1830 the total shipment of wool was only 33,000 lbs.; in 1872 it reached the total of forty-nine million lbs., since which time it has fallen off owing chiefly to loss of stock from severe droughts. The total value of this export in 1884 was £1,745,000. In 1884 the value of copper ore exported was about £406,000, and of diamonds £2,807,329, as against £150 only in 1868. Since then the export of all these productions has increased by about 25 per cent.

The external trade of the Colony is carried on chiefly with the mother country, and mainly in British and colonial vessels. The imports have doubled during the last quarter of a century, and the exports trebled during the same period.

Great crops of grain and also rice are grown on the lands on the banks of the Oliphant River, which, overflowing its bed during the rainy season, deposits on the somewhat arid land a rich sediment of earth. In the richer districts wheat is grown, and with maize, oats, barley, and millet (or Kafir corn), are common crops. Cotton has been introduced experimentally, and tobacco is a widely-spread crop. The grapes are of the finest quality, and the making of wine and brandy is now a flourishing industry. Merino sheep of the finest breeds are rapidly taking the place of the big-tailed sheep of the early Dutch settlers. The angora goat is kept extensively for the sake of its hair; and cattle of all varieties suited to the climate are found in every part of this rising and flourishing Colony.

The total value of the exports from the Colony in 1884, including gold —in dust, bar, nuggets, and ore—and diamonds, was £6,945,674.

To revert to the subject of the progress of the Cape Colony during this

period, it will be seen in nothing so much as in the development of its railways, telegraphs, harbour and other public works. Its first railway, the line from Cape Town to Wellington, 58 miles in length, was commenced in 1860 and completed and opened in November 1863. It was constructed by a private company, but was almost immediately purchased by the Government for £773,000. The Colony now has 1,603 miles of railway open to traffic, and the total amount spent upon construction and equipment is about £14,600,000.

These railways start from three several points on the coast, viz.: Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and East London, and the systems having their termini at the two former ports are connected by a junction line. There is now direct railway communication between Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Kimberley (the Diamond Fields). In addition to the mileage above mentioned, there is a line constructed by a private company connecting Port Alfred and Grahamstown, a distance of 43 miles. Two million four hundred and seven thousand passengers were carried in 1884, and four hundred and thirteen thousand tons of goods.

The first telegraph line constructed in the Colony in 1860 was from Cape Town to Simon's Town, a distance of 22 miles. The Colony now has 4,219 miles of telegraph open, carrying 8,663 miles of wire, at a total cost of £351,007. The Colony has telegraphic communication with England by submarine cable *viâ* Zanzibar and Aden, which was opened on Christmas Day, 1879, and which is subsidised by the Home and Colonial Government.

The Colony unfortunately possesses no natural harbours, and to supply this deficiency has executed works on an extensive scale at the principal ports of the Colony, the amount expended up to the close of 1884 being £2,145,792. The works at Table Bay include an extensive breakwater, 1,870 feet in length, an outer basin six acres in extent, an inner basin or dock ten acres in extent, and a graving dock 420 feet long.

To facilitate communication and transport on the northern side of the Colony, four great bridges have been erected at different points on the Orange River, and one over the great Kei River. Up to and including the year 1884 the total cost of the public works above mentioned amounted to £18,605,350, on which there is a fair remunerative return.

Besides the raising of sheep and cattle and horses, and the cultivation of the land, which are the staple industries of the Colony, and in which at the time of the last census (1875) 210,000 of the population were engaged, there is the important industry of diamond mining at Kimberley, Old de Beer's, Du Toit's Pan, and Bultfontein, employing in all about 10,400 persons, of whom 1,228 are white and the remainder coloured. Diamond mining was commenced in 1868, and the total *declared* and known value of diamonds exported from that time to the close of 1884 was £31,772,476. It is well-known, however, that the actual export is largely in excess of the declared value.

The first diamonds in this locality were discovered in July 1871, under the root of an old thorn-tree, on the now famous Kolesberg kopje or Mount Kimberley, which since that date has been tunnelled and honeycombed in every direction by the explorations of the diamond-seekers. "The precious gems are sought for in the earth and on the banks of the Vaal river, the water of which is used to wash them from their clayey

matrix. But back from the river the dry diggings consist of pits sunk through the decomposed volcanic rocks until the tufaceous limestone and clay, among which the gems are found, are reached." Dr. Robert Brown says, "But the country, though it may be rich, is not pretty. Indeed, a drier, uglier, drearier, more depressing region than the Diamond Fields it would be impossible to look on, especially after no rain has fallen for some months, and the thermometer has day after day been going steadily up to 90° in the shade. About Kimberley especially the dryness and dreariness attain a maximum." When Mr. Trollope visited the place there was not a blade of grass on the ground, and he seemed to breathe dust rather than air. The great novelist was not impressed with the metropolis of the Diamond Fields. "An atmosphere," he says, "composed of flies and dust cannot be pleasant—of dust so thick that the sufferer fears to remove it, lest the raising of it may aggravate the evil—and of flies so numerous that one hardly dares to slaughter them by the ordinary means, lest their dead bodies should be noisome. When a gust of wind would bring the dust in a cloud, hiding everything—a cloud so thick that it seemed that the solid surface of the earth had risen diluted into the air, and when flies had rendered occupation altogether impossible—I was told, when complaining, that I ought to be there in December or February—at some other time of the year than that then present—if I really wanted to see what flies and dust could do." These disadvantages are no doubt condoned in the eyes of the miners in a region which has produced diamonds considerably over thirty millions sterling in value.

The following extract from an article in the *Times* newspaper, written on the spot so lately as the 27th March, 1886, furnishes a graphic account of life at the diamond-mining district:—

"The extension of the railway from Cape Town to Kimberley has made a visit to the famous Diamond Fields so easy that it may be undertaken without fear by even the most delicate and fastidious of travellers. Twenty days in a fast, well-appointed mail steamer land you in Cape Town, and the journey to Kimberley occupies only thirty-one hours in trains supplied with travelling kitchens, sleeping compartments, dressing-rooms, and every possible convenience.

"Kimberley is 4050 feet above the sea level, and is remarkable for the dryness and purity of its atmosphere. The air is said to be too dry for anything but lungs. There are certainly many recorded cases of recovery from pulmonary complaints deemed hopeless in England. The surrounding country is flat and of prairie character, with low purple hills on the eastern side, some twenty miles away, in the Orange Free State. Just now it is covered with luxuriant grass of freshest green, on which are grazing vast herds of huge fat bullocks, innocent of mangold and oil-cake, and it is delightful to drive a few miles out and lie under the shade of the fragrant mimosas and listen to the champing of the great sleek soft-eyed creatures. This, however, is an exceptional time of year, and it may be an exceptional season. As a rule, Kimberley lies *pigris ubi nulla campis arbor æstiva recreatur aurâ*, for the trees which once covered the plains have long ago been cut down for fuel, and the grass is soon bleached by winter frost and summer sun.

"The Kimberley diamond market presents a curious and unique sight, with the busy brokers running about with their parcels, and the buyers

sitting quietly at the open windows of their little offices sorting piles of glittering gems. The magnitude of the trade may be gathered from the following figures, showing the value of the diamonds exported from Kimberley during the last three years:—1883, £2,742,521; 1884, £2,807,288; 1885, £2,492,755.

"Such, briefly, is the history of the production of diamonds at Kimberley, which is well worth seeing. The town itself is gay and full of life. The markets are well supplied, fresh fish is brought by rail from the coast, ice is always to be had. There is a good club, where a visitor well introduced is always made welcome. Excellent cabs ply for hire, and the streets are well lit at night by electricity. There are churches, schools, law courts, doctors, a good library, a public garden, banks, daily papers, and, not least, a complete absence of rowdiness. If suitable house accommodation were provided it would be a capital place for persons with weak lungs, for with the light dry air there is a continuous interest and excitement—a stir and bustle that drive away the terrible *ennui* inseparable from the ordinary health resort, 'where men sit and hear each other groan,' with nothing to do but think of their ailments."

Copper mining is carried on in Namaqualand, the annual average produce being 21,000 tons, and 1,800 persons are employed. The ores are of very rich quality, after classification and dressing realising an average assay of about 32 per cent. Since 1852, when copper ore was first exported, to the end of 1884 the total produce amounted to 268,215 tons, and in that period the annual export has increased from 31 tons to 22,705 tons. Coal mining, which is of quite recent origin in the Colony, is now carried on at the Cyphergat and Molteno Mines in the Albert Division, and the Indwe Mine in the Wodehouse Division. The present annual produce is about 9,000 tons, employing about 200 persons. The coalfields are of immense extent, and will ultimately prove of great value to the Colony. The eastern line of railways is now entirely supplied with coals from these mines; and as soon as the remaining 150 miles or thereabouts of railway connecting all the seaports with the coalfields shall have been constructed, ships of war and transports, as well as merchant vessels, can be supplied with colonial coal and made independent of coal supplies from England. On the ground of economy this will obviously be a great advantage, and politically—in the event of war or accidental closing of the Suez Canal—a local supply will be of incalculable importance to the defence and trade of the empire. There are also alum, lead, crocodilite, manganese, and saltpetre mines, several of which are being worked.

There are 17 fisheries at various points on the coast, employing 335 boats and 1854 men, and the value of the fish caught in 1884 at the 12 stations from which returns were obtained amounted to £89,563.

There are about 50 salt-pans now being worked in the Colony, many of which are very extensive. According to the returns obtained in 1884 from 26 of these pans the value produced was about £30,000.

Cape Colony has one University, which is an examining body, and has power to grant degrees, incorporated in 1873 and granted a royal charter in 1877. The Colony has also 5 colleges and 1004 schools of various classes. The number of college students was 315, the number of scholars on the roll being 78,037. Education is not compulsory.

The income and expenditure of the Colony in 1884 were: Revenue,

£7,532,983, and expenditure, £5,374,982. During the last ten years one-half of the expenditure has been on public works.

The population of the Colony at the census of 1875 was 721,000, of whom less than 237,000 were whites, the remainder being Kafirs of various tribes—Hottentots, Bushmen, Malays, and others. A military force of two kinds is maintained for the defence of the Colony—the Cape Mounted Riflemen, 692 officers and men in 1884, and Cape Infantry, 497 officers and men. There was besides in that year a body of nearly 3,000 volunteers. By a law passed in 1878 every able-bodied man in the Colony between 18 and 50 is subject to military service; beyond as well as within the colonial limits. The amount of emigration to Cape Colony is small, from 1873 to 1884 the total number of immigrants sent out by the emigration agent in England was 23,337.

"Contrary to the common impression which has somehow or other gained ground, the Cape Colony is by no means a flat or undulating country; it is in reality one of the wildest, most picturesque, and even mountainous regions which the English have elected to people. High uplands and great elevated plains, are interspersed among bold mountain ridges and escarpments, among which through savage gorges the drainage finds its way to the Indian or Atlantic Oceans, or north to the Orange River, to be finally discharged on the dry north-western coasts. Within the limits of the country longest settled there is a concentration of some of the most picturesque scenery in the world. Certainly nowhere else in the Colony is there such an alternation of hill and valley, plain and well-clothed woodland." *

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.—The Cape of Good Hope, or Cape Colony, as the British possessions in the extreme south of the African continent are indifferently named, extends from the Indian Ocean as far north as the Orange or Gariep River. On the west its shores are washed by the waters of the Atlantic, on the north it is bounded to the west of the 22nd meridian of east longitude by the Orange River, on the north-east by the Orange Free State and Natal, and on the east and south by the Indian Ocean. The Colony has a length, from east to west, of nearly 600 miles, with a breadth, from north to south, of upwards of 450 miles. The coast-line is little short of 1,200 miles in extent, and the area of the entire territory (including British Transkei) is estimated at about 212,000 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The chain of the Nieuveldt Mountains, of which the general direction is east and west, traverses the greater part of the Colony, and divides it into two distinct portions. That part lying to the north of the chain consists of open, and, for the most part, sterile plains, sloping towards the Orange River and watered by streams which fall into it. Upon the south of the mountains are a succession of high terraces divided by chains of hills, and gradually decreasing in elevation as they approach the sea shore. One of these terraces, called the Great Karroo,

* Dr. Brown's 'Countries of the World.'

extends along the base of the mountains for 300 miles, with a breadth of some 70 miles. Its soil consists of shallow beds of the richest soil, which only want the fertilizing power of water to render them not only as rich, but much richer than any other parts of the surface. Lichtenstein and Pringle describe in eloquent terms the beauty of the Great Karroo after the vivifying effect of a few thunderstorms.

Although the rivers of the Colony are numerous, they are in general mere shallow torrents, except when swelled by the rains, and as they often flow in deep and precipitous ravines, it is difficult to utilise them for purposes of irrigation. Even the Orange River, the largest of them all, has not sufficient depth of water for navigation, and those of the shorter streams which allow of the passage of small craft over some portion of their course have bars at their mouths, which render access to them difficult and dangerous.

In the lower grounds agriculture is carried on with a fair amount of success, but this branch of industry is often seriously impeded by the long droughts to which the country is subject, while at other times much injury is caused by heavy rainfalls, which swell the rivers and cause them to overflow, to the great damage of the surrounding country. The extensive tracts which are adapted to pasturage render sheep farming and cattle raising one of the most important industries of the Colony.

Off the most southerly portion of the African continent is the great submarine elevation known as the Bank of Agulhas, which extends for 200 miles from the coast, and is more than 500 miles in length from east to west.

CAPES.—The principal headlands are Point Paternoster, on the west coast, at the north-western extremity of St. Helena Bay; with the Cape of Good Hope, Cape Agulhas, Cape St. Francis, and Cape Recife on the south. Cape Agulhas is the most southern point of the African continent.

BAYS AND HARBOURS.—The coasts of Cape Colony contain several good harbours. The most important are St. Helena Bay, Saldanha Bay, and Table Bay, on the west; and False Bay (of which Simon's Bay forms a part), St. Sebastian Bay, Walker's Bay, Mossel Bay, Plettenberg Bay, Gamtoos Bay, and Algoa Bay, on the south. Saldanha Bay, the largest and most commodious of these, is safe in all weathers. Table Bay is somewhat insecure in the winter months (from May to September), owing to the prevalence at that period of the year of north-westerly winds. Simon's Bay, 15 miles south of Cape Town, forms a secure shelter at all times of the year, and is the principal naval station of Great Britain in this part of the world.

MOUNTAINS.—The principal mountains of South Africa, within the Cape Colony, are the Nieuveldt Mountains, which run from east to west, at an average distance of 120 miles from the coast. The eastern portion of this chain, known as the Sneeuw Bergen, or Snowy Mountains, has the Compass Berg, which is 7,800 feet in height. Other heights, including the Zwarteberg (or Black Mountain) 4,000 feet high, occur between the Nieuwveld Mountains and the sea. The most remarkable of these is Table Mountain, immediately to the southward of Cape Town, a peculiar flat-topped summit, 3,580 feet above the sea level. It forms, with some adjacent heights, a detached mountain group.

RIVERS.—With the exception of the Gariep or Orange River, which extends from the Atlantic to within about 150 miles of the eastern sea-

board, the rivers of the Cape Colony have very short courses. None of the rivers are of any great utility for purposes of navigation, being as a rule broken up by cataracts. After the Orange River the principal streams are the Oliphant River, on the west; with the Breede, the Gauritz, the Gamtoos, the Great Fish, the Keiskamma, and the Kei, on the south.

DIVISIONS, TOWNS, &c.—The Colony is divided into two great districts —an eastern and a western, which are again subdivided. In the western, or oldest settled district, some attention has been devoted to agriculture; but the eastern, which is more thinly peopled, is almost purely pastoral.

Cape Town, with a population, including the suburbs, of upwards of 45,000, is the capital of the Colony and seat of the Government. This city, which is well and regularly built, the streets intersecting one another at right angles, is situated on the south shore of Table Bay, 31 miles to the northward of the Cape of Good Hope. Other towns in the western district are Simon's Town, to the south of the capital, a shipping station and Government arsenal; Paarl (5,760 inhabitants); Worcester (3,788); Wellington, Malmesbury, Stellenbosch, Caledon, and Swellendam. In the eastern district the principal place is Graham's Town, with about 7,000 inhabitants. Port Elizabeth, on Algoa Bay, with upwards of 13,000 inhabitants, and East London, are the shipping ports of this part of the Colony. Other towns are King William's Town (5,169 inhabitants); Graaf Reinet (4,562); Queenstown, Colesberg, Beaufort, Uitenhage, and Cradock.

Kimberley, with a population of about 14,000, is the principal town in the territory of Griqualand West, which contains the celebrated South African diamond fields.

NAMAQUA LAND extends along the Atlantic coast to the south of the Orange River. It is generally arid, but it contains copper mines of considerable value.

The port of WALVISCH BAY, on the west coast of South Africa, a few miles north of the Tropic of Capricorn, was in 1884 incorporated with the Cape Colony.

BASUTOLAND, a strip of territory lying between the Cape Colony on the south, and the Orange River Free State and Natal on the north and east, has recently been taken directly under British rule, at the request of the native tribes inhabiting it. It is now governed by a Resident Commissioner acting under the direction of Her Majesty's High Commissioner for South Africa. The area of this territory is estimated at 10,293 square miles.

The Colony has been distinguished by the number of annexations made by it; the most important of these are the following: British Kaffraria (now the districts of King William's Town, East London) in 1866; Fingo-Land, Idutywa Reserve and No Man's Land (Transkei), 1876; Walvisch Bay, 1878; Griqualand West 1880; St. John's River Territory, 1884; Tembuland, Emigrant Tambukiland, Bomvana Land, and Gdalekaland (Transkei), 1885.

BECHUANALAND.

The following particulars regarding these territories contiguous to Cape Colony are extracted from the Colonial Office List.

As a consequence of the Convention of London, concluded on the 27th February, 1884, between Her Majesty and the South African Republic, it was decided by Her Majesty's Government to establish a protectorate in Bechuanaland, with the special object of protecting two chiefs named Mankaroane (chief of the Batlapins) and Montsioa (chief of the Barolongs), whose misfortunes had excited much sympathy in this country, and who were believed to have established special claims upon the gratitude of Great Britain. The cases of the chiefs were very similar. Mankaroane had a rival named Massouw, who was supported by certain Boers, whilst Montsioa had a rival, similarly supported, named Moshette. In each case the natives supported by the Boers had been victorious in the hostilities which had taken place, and in the peace agreements which followed it was provided that the European volunteers should receive grants of land, chiefly out of the former possession of the defeated chiefs. The allies of Massouw had constitued themselves into a Republic styled Stellaland, and the allies of Moshette into one styled Land Goosen, or the Land of Goshen. The Stellalanders succeeded to a greater extent than the Goshenites in occupying the lands thus carved out for them and in organising a Government. The Goshenites were for a long time practically in laager, but latterly they entirely broke down the resistance of Montsioa, and killed his chief white advisers; and a military expedition had to be despatched by the British Government to enforce the restoration of his rights. In pursuance of the resolution to establish a protectorate, Mr. John Mackenzie, who had long lived with Mankaroane as a missionary, was appointed Deputy to the High Commissioner for Bechuanaland, and proceeded to Mankaroane's town of Taungs, where, on the 3rd May, 1884, he accepted from that chief, on behalf of the Queen, a cession of his rights of government. He then proceeded to Vryburg, the capital of Stellaland, where, on the 12th of May, he entered into negotiations with certain persons whom he believed to represent the white inhabitants at large, but no agreement was concluded. He then proceeded to Mafeking, where, on the 22nd of May, he negotiated a treaty with Montsioa similar to that obtained from Mankaroane. He next visited the western chiefs and obtained treaties from them. All this time a police force had been in course of organisation at Kimberley and Taungs, but the work proceeded slowly, chiefly from the difficulty of obtaining good horses; and there were no men available to keep the peace between Montsioa and the Goshenites. On the 12th May, that is a few days before Mr. Mackenzie's arrival at Mafeking, Mr. Bethell, a white adviser of Montsioa, had led the tribe to burn a part of the Goshenites' town, and, although there appear to have been no reprisals during Dr. Mackenzies' brief stay, the Goshenites had determined to renew hostilities, and in June proceeded to make forays on Montsioa's cattle and crops, and to seek to bring on a general engagement. This they succeeded in doing on the 31st of July, when Montsioa's forces were completely routed, 100 tribesmen being killed, and also Mr. Bethell and a Mr. Walker, two of Montsioa's white friends.

The Goshenites thus obtained for the first time possession of the lands which they had long been watching an opportunity to seize; whilst Montsioa in turn went into laager in his stockade at Mafeking. At this point the South African Republic intervened, Commandant-General Joubert, who had been sent to meet Mr. Rhodes, the English Deputy Commissioner, brought about a so-called peace and settlement of the country, which included the destruction of Montsioa's laager and the absorption of all his country by the freebooters, except 10 farms, or, say, about 60,000 acres. This agreement was repudiated by Mr. Rhodes, directly he was informed of it, and was never recognised in any way. Montsioa was also induced to offer to place himself and his tribe under the South African Republic; whereupon the President, with the assent of the Volksraad, issued a proclamation, dated the 16th September, taking Montsioa and also Moshette under the proetction of the Republic, subject to the approval of Her Majesty the Queen, under Article IV. of the Convention of London.

Her Majesty's Government, in a telegram of the 7th of October, disapproved the proclamation, and called on the South African Republic to annul it, which was done by another proclamation of the 13th of that month. Her Majesty's Government at the same time decided to take steps to extricate Montsioa from the state in which he had been left by the attacks of the freebooters. For this purpose arrangements were made for collecting and, if necessary, despatching to Bechuanaland a force of about 4,000 men of all arms, including a battery of artillery, a regiment of dragoons, a battalion of infantry, a company of mounted infantry, and 2,000 irregular cavalry. The force was placed under the immediate command of Sir Charles Warren, R.E. (now G.C.M.G.) with the local military rank of Major-General, and having also a civil commission as Special Commissioner for Bechuanaland. Whilst the military preparations were proceeding, the Cape ministers visited the country with a view of arranging a peaceful settlement. On the 22nd November, 1884, these gentlemen, Messrs. Upington and Sprigg, concluded an arrangement with the Goshenites, the details of which need not be given, as they were regarded by Her Majesty's Government as not altogether satisfactory, and Sir Charles Warren was consequently directed to proceed and occupy the country, which he did without meeting with any armed opposition. He remained in military occupation of the country until August 1885, completely restoring tranquillity, and engaging in many useful labours for the permanent pacification of the country. These labours included the marking off of the Transvaal and Bechuanaland boundary, as laid down by the London Convention of 1884, and visiting the chiefs of Northern Bechuanaland, Gasitsewe, Sechele, and Khama, over whom Her Majesty's Government had declared a protectorate in March 1885.

To return to the affairs of the settlers in Stellaland, it may be mentioned that, after leaving Montsioa at the end of May, Mr. Mackenzie arrived at a settlement of the affairs of Stellaland with some of the persons with whom he had previously been treating, which involved a recognition to a great extent of the land claims of the Stellalanders, and of the money obligations of the Stellaland Government, and the assumption by the British Government of the administration of the country. This settlement was finally concluded on the 4th July. In August Mr. Mackenzie was recalled to Cape Town by Sir Hercules Robinson, and whilst there, in view of the disfavour

with which his appointment and proceedings were regarded by the Cape ministry, he, on the 19th August, tendered his resignation, which Sir Hercules Robinson and Her Majesty's Government accepted.

In the meantime Mr. Rhodes had been sent to replace him in Bechuana land, assisted by Commander Graham Bower, R.N., Sir Hercules Robinson's secretary; and, amongst other things, these gentlemen arrived at an agreement with the Stellalanders on the 8th September, rescinding Mr. Mackenzie's arrangement of the affairs of Stellaland, and restoring the temporary administration of its affairs to the white inhabitants, under the supervision of the British Government pending a final settlement of affairs and the annexation of Bechuanaland to the Cape Colony, which was the end generally kept in view by all parties. Sir Charles Warren and the Bestuur, or Council, which existed in Stellaland during his presence in the country, were opposed to the Rhodes agreement on technical and general grounds, into which it is unnecessary to enter, as the whole land question in British Bechuanaland has been relegated to a judicial commission consisting of the present administrator, Mr. Justice Shippard, and two officers of Royal Engineers.

On the 30th September, 1885, the territory south of the Molopo River and of the Ramathlabama Spruit, was declared to be British territory under the name of British Bechuanaland. A commission was issued to the Governor of the Cape of Good Hope to be its Governor, with power to legislate by proclamation, and the actual duties of administrator were entrusted to Mr. S. G. A. Shippard, formerly Attorney-General of Griqualand West, and subsequently a judge in the Cape Colony. Sir Charles Warren's force having been withdrawn, a mounted public force of 500 men was formed under Colonel Carrington, C.M.G., for service in British Bechuanaland, and also to patrol and protect the country of the three protected chiefs of Northern Bechuanaland already mentioned, Gasitsewe, Sechele, and Khama. The cost of the territory to the Imperial Government is at present at the rate of £100,000 a year. The latest accounts of the country are satisfactory.

PONDOLAND.

Pondoland has been under protection since 1874, when Sir Peregrine Maitland entered into a treaty with Faku, then paramount chief. In 1878 Sir Bartle Frere, as High Commissioner, intervened in the affairs of Pondoland, deposing Umquikela from the position of paramount chief, and placing half the tribe under the independent rule of Umquiiiso. He renewed the declaration of protectorate, and annexed the St. John's River mouth, which has since been incorporated with the Cape Colony. The existence of the British protectorate over Pondoland was recently notified anew in the Cape Gazette.

NATAL.

NATAL.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
SIR ARTHUR ELIBANK HAVELOCK, K.C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
LIEUT.-COLONEL SIR CHARLES BULLEN H. MITCHELL, K.C.M.G.

SECRETARY FOR NATIVE AFFAIRS,
HON. H. C. SHEPSTONE.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
J. CHADWICK.

COLONIAL TREASURER,
HON. JOHN T. POLKINGBORNE.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
SIR HENRY CONNOR.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. CHARLES F. CADIZ, HON. WALTER THOMAS WRAGG,
HON. J. W. SHEPSTONE.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. M. H. GALLWEY, C.M.G.

COLONIAL ENGINEER,
LIEUT.-COLONEL A. H. HIME.

NATAL.

PORT NATAL was discovered by Vasco de Gama, the celebrated Portuguese navigator, on Christmas Day, 1497. After rounding the Cape of Good Hope about a month previously on his celebrated voyage to India, and, touching at a settlement of the Moors on the coast of Africa, de Gama and his hardy band came in sight of a pleasant and verdant land with a fine port, which was at once named *Terra Natalis*, in honour of the Nativity. Beyond marking the coast-line on their charts, however, the explorers seem to have done little, and the country appears to have been almost neglected for a couple of centuries, with the exception of some passing visits of occasional crews from Portugal. The first recorded visit of our own countrymen took place in 1683, and that was rather of luckless origin. A large ship with 80 hands was wrecked near Delagoa Bay, and the unfortunate mariners had to make the best of their way back to the Cape overland. The tidings they brought of the country they had passed through excited some interest, which was increased three years later by accounts given by some more hapless wights who had also been shipwrecked from a Netherlandish vessel. A settlement was made by the Dutch at Port Natal in 1721, but soon after abandoned.

It was not, however, until a century after this that the first serious attempt was made to colonise Natal, and this time the enterprise was the work of England. In 1823 Lieutenant Farewell, of the Royal Marines, having been sent to Natal on a surveying voyage, brought to Cape Town a very favourable account of its capabilities, and endeavoured to found a scheme for its settlement; and, having gathered about 20 persons who were willing to risk their lives and fortune in the new land, they proceeded to their destination in the following year, the Government at the time declining to recognise the project in any way. Natal was then under the sway of one of its most powerful and notorious rulers, Chaka, king of the Zulus, a tribe from the north of the Tugela, which, originally a mere clan, under its chief Senzagakona had been gradually driving out the peaceful and friendly race which the Portuguese and Netherlandish sailors had found as occupants, and had now made themselves masters of their territory, establishing their own rule from Delagoa Bay to the River St. John, a distance of some 500 miles. Negotiations had accordingly to be opened with Chaka, who granted to the emigrants, after some little delay, permission to found a trading settlement at Delagoa Bay, and who promoted with a view to his own interests Mr. Fynn, who had preceded Lieutenant Farewell with the first batch of the little party, to the position of a subordinate chief. King Chaka's sway, however, did not last long after this, as he was murdered by his chieftains, at the instigation of his brother Dingaan. This worthy

relative then proceeded to inflict punishment on such other chieftains as had been guilty of the high crime of loyalty to his brother, and summoned Mr. Fynn, amongst others, to appear before him; but that gentleman wisely decided to forego the pleasure of swearing allegiance to the new monarch, and promptly took his way with the other white settlers across the Umzimkulu, Dingaan pursuing them hotly and capturing their cattle. The warfare, such as it was, did not last long, and an arrangement having been entered into with the monarch, Mr. Fynn returned to his old quarters, and in 1831 was formally recognised by King Dingaan as the "great chief" of the Natal Kafirs, but four years after resigned his honours and returned to the Cape.

Mr. Fynn was succeeded by Captain Allen Gardiner, who came out to the settlement with the object of founding a missionary station. The Kafirs expelled by the Zulus under Chaka had meanwhile been flocking back to the protection of the English emigrants, and it was agreed by a treaty entered into with King Dingaan in 1835 that all who had returned previous to the treaty should be amnestied, but that in future the settlers should not give countenance to such refugees. In compliance with the terms of this convention, Captain Gardiner delivered up some of the fugitives, who were forthwith executed before his eyes. The same year too is celebrated for the emigration of a large body of Dutch farmers, by an overland journey from the Cape, which Colony they left on account of their dissatisfaction with the authorities of that Colony, and in the following year a larger body, being well pleased with the reception of the first party, followed in their train, thus forming the nucleus of the considerable Dutch element now existing in Natal. Dingaan, however, seems to have regarded the white settlers as intruders, and, in spite of the treaty he had concluded in February 1838, fell upon a party of Dutchmen who had gone to Zululand for the purpose of concluding a treaty with him, and treacherously put them to death, following up his butchery by crossing into Zululand and killing at Weenen another party of Boers who were on the march from the Cape. About 600 persons are said to have perished on this memorable occasion, and, intoxicated with success, King Dingaan proceeded to attack the English settlers also, but did not succeed in expelling them, and was shortly after attacked himself by a large army of Boers and disastrously defeated.

The rival claims of the English and Dutch to the new settlement about this time seem to have awakened some apprehension on the part of the Cape Government, who were unwilling to let a foreign power have possession of the territory, and accordingly despatched a battalion of the 72nd Highlanders to Port Natal, "to put an end to the unwarranted occupation of parts of the territories belonging to the natives by certain emigrants from the Cape Colony, being subjects of Her Majesty." Finding all quiet, however, the Highlanders were removed in 1839; but they had hardly left when the Dutchmen at once hoisted the flag of their Republic at Port Natal, following up their hostility by forming an alliance with Panda, a Zulu chief, who was endeavouring to supplant his brother Dingaan. In the following year (1840) the hostile forces met, Dingaan's being utterly routed, with the result that Panda became King of the Zulus in his stead. Meanwhile the Netherlanders had been displaying a constantly increasing aversion and hostility to the claims of the English rule, and, after repeated warnings

that such conduct would not be tolerated, a force of 200 foot and two field-pieces was sent to occupy Durban, the Boers vacating the place, encamping a short distance outside. After occupying the English for some days in parleying, committing outrages themselves in the meantime, an attack was made by the troops on the Boers on the 23rd May, which ended in the defeat of the English, who were driven into camp, besieged by the Boers, and reduced to the verge of capitulation, but were ultimately relieved from the Cape by the heroic exertions and daring of Mr. Richard King, who escaped from the town with two horses, and rode 600 miles across country to Cape Town. On the 24th of June the hearts of the besieged were gladdened by the sight of two war-vessels in the offing, the *Conch* and *Southampton*, which promptly raised the siege and put the rebels to a very hasty flight, followed by the submission of the Boers on the 5th July, at Pietermaritzburg, to Colonel Cloete, who commanded the English forces. This first trouble was succeeded by a convention under which the cross-grained Dutchmen were treated with great leniency.

Natal was formally annexed to the English Crown in 1843, and in the following year declared to constitute a portion of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope, under the jurisdiction of which it remained for twelve years; but it was formed into a separate Colony on the 15th of July, 1856 and has remained so ever since. Its history during the past thirty years has been a very eventful one, mainly owing to the constant fretfulness and chafings of the Boers, and the hostility shown on more than one occasion by the Zulu nation, more particularly under Cetywayo, when he superseded his father Panda's influence.

The first Lieutanant-Governor, Mr. Martin West, arrived towards the end of the year 1845, and at once set to work to endeavour to settle the claims of the Dutch settlers, but as usual his efforts were not satisfactorily received, and many of the Boers withdrew, some beyond the river Vaal; others, keeping within the territory, maintained a surly and refractory attitude. Two years later some of them made an independent claim to part of the territory between the Upper Tugela and Buffalo Rivers; but the claim was disallowed, whereupon the Dutchmen migrated in quantities beyond the Drakenberg. A visit of the Governor from Cape Town tended to improve matters by offers of grants of land, and many of the malcontents came back in 1848. The year 1849 is memorable for Mr. J. C. Byrne's scheme for colonizing the country from Great Britain under the sanction of the Home Government, a scheme which, though very unfortunate in its first results, laid a good foundation for future progress.

Shortly after this, Governor West died, and in 1850 a new Lieutenant-Governor, Mr. Pine, was appointed to succeed him. The year 1851 witnessed further activity in the direction of colonization on the part of some English speculators, and the steady progress of the Colony may be said to date from that time. Additional magistrates were appointed in that year, and in 1853 the Colony was constituted a Bishop's see, municipal corporations being established at Durban and Maritzburg in the following year. The next Lieutenant-Governor was Mr. John Scott, who was sent out in 1856 with a Royal Charter constituting the Colony, and Natal was formally proclaimed a distinct Colony on the 5th of November in that year. This charter provided for a Legislative Assembly and thus recog-

nised in some measure popular representation. The election of it was mainly in the hands of the settlers, twelve being chosen in this manner and four nominated by the Crown. Disturbances broke out the same year in Zululand, which, though not within English territory, demand a short notice here on account of the intimate connection between this powerful race and the history of Natal. The old king, Panda, had now become senile and childish, and the younger men of the Zulu tribe began to manifest signs of wishing to change their allegiance, the two eldest sons of the monarch, Cetywayo and Umbulazi, being the chiefs on whom they relied. The latter, however, after some caballing, proved to be too much attached to his father to take any actual part against him. This led to a conflict between the two brothers, in which Umbulazi sustained utter defeat, and his adherents retired in great confusion across the Tugela into Natal, Umbulazi and five other sons of Panda being slain in battle. It is noteworthy that the Zulus respected the boundary line of English territory, and did not attempt to carry hostilities beyond the limits prescribed by the Convention. After this the power of Panda sank rapidly, and that of his son, the notorious Cetywayo, rose proportionately. He became chief Induna under the king, and virtually ruler of Zululand until the death of Panda in 1872; shortly after which event, viz. on the 1st of September, 1873, he was formally installed as king under the authority of the English Government. Almost contemporaneously with this event a quarrel broke out with Langalibalele, chief of the Amalubi tribe, residing in Natal as a subject of the Government there, who had for some time past maintained a threatening attitude, and who now endeavoured to escape to Basutoland, but was captured and brought to trial, which resulted in his removal as a prisoner to the Cape.

The Constitution granted in 1856 was altered by a Supplementary Charter in 1879, under which two elective members of the Legislature were added to the Executive Council; and in 1875 another law gave the Governor power to nominate eight members to seats in the Assembly.

The unsettled, one might say almost chaotic, condition of affairs in the Transvaal had in the meantime been a source of considerable uneasiness to the Colony and to the Home Government also, and after fully considering the matter its annexation was decided on, and it was accordingly incorporated with Natal on the 12th of April, 1877.

Very soon after this troubles sprang up in Zululand and war followed. Cetywayo, as will be remembered, fought bravely and caused considerable trouble to the English troops, but was finally defeated in 1879 by Lord Chelmsford at Ulundi and removed as a prisoner to Cape Town. His subsequent visit to this country and his restoration to partial sovereignty will be fresh in the recollection of the reader. As a result of this war Zululand was divided among thirteen chiefs, and a strip of territory set apart as a reserve between that country and Natal.

No sooner was the Zulu war over than the Transvaal Boers began to show signs of hostility, demanding the restoration of their territory and claiming independence, and at the end of 1880 began to have recourse to arms. The English garrisons were besieged; and at Lang's Nek, Ingogo and Majuba Hill the English troops were defeated. The result of the war, in which the English at first suffered a repulse, owing among other causes to insufficiency of troops at the early part of the conflict, was that the

Boers were ultimately allowed to resume their independence, subject however to the suzerainty of Her Majesty the Queen.

The Zulu settlement, moreover, was found not to work very satisfactorily, and the various chieftains were soon again in conflict, and the army of Cetywayo was defeated by Usibepu, and himself badly wounded, to such an extent that he died on February 8, 1884. Usibepu was not long allowed supremacy, as he had to meet reinforcements from Natal and the Orange Free State, by which he was defeated and exiled, and Cetywayo's son Dinizulu crowned king on the 21st of May, 1884.

The climate of Natal is, generally speaking, a healthy one, and is highly beneficial to persons suffering from pulmonary complaints; lying just outside the tropical zone, it is of course hot, but the heat in summer is much modified by cool winds, rain and terrific thunderstorms. Summer begins in October and ends in March, and winter lasts from April to September; during the latter season slight frosts sometimes occur on the higher grounds. One of the characteristics of the climate is the occasional prevalence of a disagreeable hot wind which blows over the land from the north-west. These hot winds do not often last more than ten hours, and usually blow from early morning until the afternoon. They originate from the scorched plains of the interior of Africa, and their motion is very puzzling to the meteorologist. Hailstorms appear at intervals in the summer, causing a good deal of damage to the growing crops; summer too is the season of the principal rainfall. The mean temperature of the Colony throughout the year may be put down at from 64° to 65°.

The constitution of Natal consists of a Governor, who is assisted by an Executive Council, and of a Legislative Council of thirty members, twenty-three of whom are elected by the colonists; the remainder are *ex-officio* members (5) and members nominated by the Governor (2). The elected members hold their seats for four years, but the Governor has the power of dissolving the Council at any time.

Natal consists of only one diocese, the first bishop, the celebrated Dr. Colenso, being appointed in 1853, and the see has been vacant since his death in 1883. No statistics of the strength of the various denominations having been furnished to us, it is not possible to give any precise information on the subject, but the various bodies appear to be well represented. The Church of England has two dioceses in the adjoining territory of Zululand and St. John's, Kaffraria. There are various missionary stations belonging to different denominations, both in these territories and in Natal itself, at which every care is taken of the spiritual wants of the natives, and of the coolie immigrants. An Act for the improvement of education of the Colony was passed in 1877, and is producing good results.

The trade of Natal is considerable, but it is capable of much further development. The principal imports are manufactured goods, and the exports colonial produce, the total of the former in 1884 being of the value of £1,675,850, and of the latter £957,918. The tariffs are liberal, and, with the exception of a duty of 15 per cent. on woollen goods, are not prejudicial to the home manufacturer.

The agriculture of Natal is naturally the most important feature to be dealt with, and from the nature of the country it is of a very varied description. The following description taken from the Official Colonization Circular gives concise information on the subject :—

"For a distance inland from the sea-coast of about 12 to 15 miles the land is very suitable for the cultivation of all kinds of tropical and semi-tropical produce, and is now rather extensively cultivated for sugar, coffee, arrowroot, maize, beans, &c. The soil is generally a light sandy loam, with here and there patches of stronger and clay soils, and, having been covered to a large extent by a thick forest of trees (usually termed "bush") for many years, is in parts richly charged with decayed vegetable matter. Its first cultivation gives some surprising results, and it continues to yield heavy and profitable crops for some years without entailing any expense for manures. In addition to the staple articles above mentioned, this district is favourable for the production of nearly all kinds of ordinary farm and garden produce, except cereals; two crops of vegetables may easily be grown in each year, and on some lands three crops may be raised in about thirteen months. On the alluvial flat, oat-hay, potatoes, and sweet potatoes do very well; and as for fruit, for which there is a large local demand, as well as for export to the Cape Colony, pineapples, oranges, lemons, limes, bananas, guavas, plantains, loquats, peaches, mulberries, tomatoes, panpans, mangoes, cucumbers, melons, granadillas, custard apples, &c., may be grown to any extent. Cotton has been grown successfully, but is now neglected for more profitable agriculture, and the same may be said of ground-nuts. Indigo is an indigenous plant, and the growth of tea promises to become an established industry in course of time. The principal article of produce on the coast is sugar, which on good lands and with favourable seasons often amounts to 2½ tons or 3 tons per acre. Rum is distilled on the sugar plantations to a considerable extent, and meets with ready sale in the Colony and for export.

"Leaving the coast, the surface of the Colony (which, though mountainous in some parts, consists generally of tablelands and undulating country, with valleys intervening) rises to a height of about 8,000 feet above the level of the sea on the northern and western boundaries, and is covered with rich verdure; trees in some favoured localities have assumed the form of permanent forests, which are not affected seriously by the practice of burning off grass in winter. The plantations of eucalyptus (blue gum) and other fast-growing trees, with which many farmers have surrounded their homesteads, and formed hedgerows round their cultivated fields, indicate not only that the necessity of a supply of home-grown timber has been felt and provided for, but that the 'pride of the home' is being gratified in that way which is the characteristic of English country gentlemen.

"Next to the coast-lands there is a narrow belt of country, which as yet has only been used for cattle farming and grazing, but then comes a wide stretch of country termed 'the midland district,' with rich black and red loamy soil, besides clay soils, where all kinds of cereals and root-crops which are cultivated in Europe can be successfully grown. The cultivation of maize, oats, barley, millet, potatoes (round and sweet), turnips, pumpkins, peas, beans, onions, &c., in these districts, and the breeding of cattle, horses, pigs, and poultry, have been the means whereby the settlers have, during the last ten years, accumulated considerable property in money, lands, and farming stock. A large portion of the Colony is suitable also for ostrich farming.

"Dairy and poultry farming is very profitable, and in fact the supply of butter, eggs and milk, as well as of all kinds of poultry, and general farm and garden produce, has not been equal to the demand or purchasing

power of the residents for some years past, and consequently the prices obtainable for such articles have been extravagantly high.

"Sheep farming is one of the most prosperous and lucrative industries in the Colony, and is carried on to a fast increasing extent in the upper districts, as well as in part of the midland districts and in Alfred County (the south-west portion of the Colony)."

There is still plenty of land in Natal procurable at extremely low prices, and immigration and settlement is fostered by a Land and Immigration Board established in the Colony in 1876.

The railway system of Natal has hitherto been neglected, but steps are now being taken to place the Colony in a better position with regard to this important matter. At present however, the railway system runs from Pietermaritzburg to the port of Durban, a distance of 78 miles, with a branch northwards from Ungeni to Verulam, and one south to the Isipingo River. A further extension to Ladysmith, 118 miles in length, is now on the point of completion. There is a considerable waggon traffic through the interior into the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. By this route the Cape Colony receives Natal products, and by waggons also the ivory, ostrich feathers and wool of Central Africa are sent out of the country through the Natal port. The principal trade of the Colony is with the United Kingdom. The minerals of Natal are not important, but coal is found in places and limestone abounds. The military defence is intrusted to a small force of volunteers numbering about 800 men, and there is in addition an armed police force of some 300, mainly Europeans. The value of the imports in 1884 was £1,675,850, and of the exports, £957,918; the tonnage of the vessels entering Port Natal in the same year amounted to 210,181 tons, and of the vessels clearing 195,730 tons.

The population of Natal, according to the latest returns, consists of 424,495 persons. Of these only 35,453 were Europeans, of the remainder 361,766 were Zulus and other African tribes, and 27,276 Hindoo and Chinese coolies.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—The colony of Natal is situated on the south-east Coast of Africa, about 800 miles from the Cape of Good Hope. It is bounded on the east by the Indian Ocean, on the south by Pondoland, Griqualand East and Basutoland, on the west by the Orange Free State; and on the north by the Transvaal and Zululand. The coast line extends from the mouth of the river Umtamfuna, in lat. 31° 14′ south, to the mouth of the river Tugela, in latitude 29°13′—a distance of some 175 miles; but inland the country stretches in a northerly direction to 27° 20′ south latitude. From the Indian Ocean, Natal extends to the west up to the Drakenberg Mountains, a distance varying from 80 to 120 miles. This great chain extends along the whole north-western border of the Colony and separates it from the Orange Free State. The total area of Natal is computed to be about 24,000 square miles, or 13½ million acres, little more than one-half the area of Scotland. It has been described as composed of the ramifications of mountains and hills which slope down, like the fingers of a hand, from the high cliff-like edge of the Drakenberg.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The whole territory consists of a succession of lands sloping pretty rapidly from the mountains of the western frontier to the sea. These mountains are of very considerable elevation, some of the summits reaching an altitude of from 7,000 to 9,500 feet above the sea level. The average height of the whole chain is from 5,000 to 6,000 feet. Its general direction is from south-west to north-east, but a branch chain is given off transversely, which first runs in a more or less westerly direction, separating Natal from Basutoland, and afterwards breaks up into numerous spurs, traversing all that part of the country lying nearest to the coast-line, and separating the basins of the numerous streams. Another branch chain of the Drakenberg, called the Biggarsberg, is found in the northerly portion of the Colony. The scenery of Natal is in many places extremely picturesque, the waterfalls forming a conspicuous feature. Although Natal possesses a good many rivers, not one of them is navigable.

BAYS.—The coast-line of this portion of the African continent is singularly unbroken, the only inlet being Port Natal, which forms a tolerable harbour, its usefulness being however lessened by the existence of a sand-bar at its mouth. The Colony has a seaboard of 170 miles.

RIVERS.—Natal contains, for its size, numerous rivers and streams, some of considerable length, but unfortunately none of them can be used for purposes of navigation. The principal are the Tugela, 250 miles in length, which, with its affluents the Buffalo and the Mooi, drains the northern and western portions of the Colony; the Umvoti, the Tongaat, the Umgeni, the Umlazi, the Ilovo, the Umkomanzi, the Umpambinyoni, the Umtwalume, the Umzumbe, the Umzimkulu and the Umtamvuna. The Tugela and the Buffalo form the dividing line between the Colony, the Transvaal and Zululand. No portion of South Africa is better watered, for no fewer than twenty-three rivers in all flow through Natal to the Indian Ocean.

TOWNS.—The only towns in Natal which are worthy of the name are Durban and Pietermaritzburg. Durban stands on the north side of the inlet known as Port Natal, and forms the shipping port of the Colony. Pietermaritzburg, some 50 miles inland, but connected with Durban by a railway, is the seat of Government.

ST. HELENA.

ST. HELENA.

GOVERNOR,
LIEUT.-COLONEL GRANT BLUNT, R.E. (Acting).

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
G. A. BANBURY (Acting).

OFFICER COMMANDING THE TROOPS,
LIEUT.-COLONEL GRANT BLUNT, R.E.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
(Vacant).

POLICE MAGISTRATE,
HENEAGE.

ST. HELENA.

ST. HELENA is an island in the Indian Ocean, in 15° 55′ south latitude, and 5° 42′ west longitude. It is 800 miles south-east of the Isle of Ascension and 1,200 miles from the coast of South Africa. The island is 10½ miles long, 6½ miles broad, and has an area of 47 square miles, or about 30,000 acres. It is oblong in form, and its general direction is from N.E. to S.W. It is of volcanic origin, and consists of rugged mountains, the highest rising to 2,700 feet; and is surrounded by precipitous cliffs, broken here and there by deep ravines, affording in some places a precarious landing. The prospect from the sea is most desolate and forbidding, far different from that presented to the early navigators, when forests of ebony clothed its now barren and denuded heights.

The island was first discovered by the Portuguese under Commander Juan de Nova Castella on St. Helena's Day (May 21st) 1501. They, however, kept its situation a secret from other European nations until 1588, when it was sighted by Captain Cavendish, who called there on his return from a voyage round the world to recruit his sickly crew. His account of the place is very interesting: he describes it as "well planted with fruits and herbs, the hills abounding with wild goats, pheasants, partridges and turkeys, with great store of swine." About the year 1600 the island was abandoned by the Portuguese and the Dutch took possession of it; but in 1763 it was captured by Sir Richard Munden, and was then granted by Charter of Charles II. to the English East India Company, who retained it until 1836, when they transferred it to the Crown for £100,000.

St. Helena is chiefly known in connection with the exile of Napoleon, whose captivity there extended from 1815 to 1821, it being ceded to the British Government for that purpose.

The island is well watered, clear springs being abundant. It is situated in the middle of the South Atlantic trade wind, and in the direct track of vessels homeward bound from the east round the Cape of Good Hope. Before the opening of the overland route it was a port of call for vast numbers of ships and passengers returning from India and other eastern parts, and on account of its importance in this respect large military and civil establishments were maintained. It was also for many years a depôt for liberated Africans landed from slavers captured by the West Coast squadron. A small garrison of about 200 men has hitherto been maintained, but in 1884 nearly half of these were withdrawn.

Although within the Tropic of Capricorn, the constant S.E. trade wind renders the climate mild and equable; and being traversed by a mountain range, varying from 1,500 feet to 2,700 feet in height, any variety of climate may be obtained, from a maximum of 82° at James Town on the sea-coast, to 74° at Longwood, 1,780 feet above the sea. The lowest temperature in winter is 57°.

The government of the island is administered by a Governor, assisted by an Executive Council of four other members. There is no Legislative Council, the Governor alone making ordinances. James Town, the seat of Government, with a population of 2,500, is situated in a valley on the N.W. (leeward) side of the island, its main street, with its bright-looking houses and trees, forming a pleasant contrast with the gloomy hills rising on either side. Two good roads lead up these heights into the country, and the barren outskirts of the island are soon exchanged for the wooded hills and valleys of the interior, crowned with pine woods; the lofty peaks of the main ridge, clothed with the luxuriant vegetation of the cabbage wood and tree fern, forming a suitable background to the picture. Oats, barley, root crops, and flax are grown, and in 1884 the island possessed 202 horses, 1,444 horned cattle, 4,165 sheep, and 1,500 goats.

The present prospects of the island, owing to the falling-off in the visits of shipping, are, however, far from encouraging. Many of the farmers have emigrated to the Cape and elsewhere; and nothing is more depressing than to see the country houses falling into decay, and the land overgrown with briars. The terrible destruction caused through the introduction of the white ant in 1840, in some Brazilian timber out of a broken-up slaver, inflicted a loss upon the Colony of £70,000, from which it has scarcely recovered. Still, a better day may be dawning for St. Helena. Mr. Morris, in his report to the Colonial Office in 1884, enumerates what he considers might be productive industries for the island, amongst others the cultivation of the English aloe, for its valuable fibre, New Zealand flax, Barbadoes aloe, tobacco, vanilla and Guinea grass, and many fruits, especially the Spanish olive, pine-apple, &c. He also places great stress upon the fisheries, there being no doubt that "the expenditure of a small capital on good boats and tackle, with hardy fishermen, would be attended with great success." There are cod banks close to the island, and no less than 73 descriptions of fish are known, many of a valuable nature (such as tunny and mackerel), and easily caught, either at sea or off the rocks.

The great drawback to the prosperity of the island is doubtless the want of efficient and organised labour. The "native," whose wants are easily supplied by a meal of fish and rice, is of a naturally indolent disposition, and not alive to the necessity of "working" for his daily food.

The island has never produced any article of export, properly so-called, beyond supplying passing ships with what they required, and the entire trade has therefore depended solely upon the large sums of money brought into circulation by this means. Since the opening of the Suez Canal, this trade has seriously fallen off. The number of ships calling at James Town for supplies from 1878–82 was as follows:—In 1878, including warships and steamers, 669; in 1879, 602; in 1880, 564; in 1881, 525; and in 1882, 497; and the revenue of the Colony, which is derived chiefly from customs and harbour dues, is consequently falling off, as may be seen from the following figures:—

	Revenue. £	Expenditure. £
1878	14,197	13,414
1879	14,154	12,486
1880	11,950	11,869
1881	12,425	12,800
1882	11,500	11,212
1883	10,266	11,145
1884	10,421	10,806

The total value of imports for 1884, which consisted chiefly of provisions, hardware, &c., was £41,816, and the exports £1,436.

There is one Church of England, one Roman Catholic, and four dissenting places of worship on the island; and 12 schools attended by 823 scholars.

The total population according to the census of 1881 (including the military), was 5,059, viz., 2,617 males, and 2,442 females.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—St. Helena is an isolated island in the South Atlantic Ocean, at 15° 55′ south latitude and 5° 42′ west longitude, distant from the nearest point of the African coast some 1,200 miles, and from the island of Ascension, which lies to the north-westward of it, some 800 miles. Its greatest length from east to west is 10 miles, and its average breadth between 5 and 6 miles. The total area of the island is about 47 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Of volcanic formation, St. Helena appears from the sea a perpendicular wall of rock, from 600 to 1,200 feet in height, topped by an undulating plain, with conical hills scattered here and there upon its surface. One of these hills, known as Diana Peak, rises to a height of 2,700 feet above the sea level. Although, from the sea, St. Helena has a barren and forbidding aspect, a nearer acquaintance shows that the interior contains fertile valleys, well watered and clothed in rich verdure. The soil produces fruit and vegetables in abundance, and coffee is grown in the island to some slight extent. The climate, which is somewhat humid, is healthy and agreeable, the variations of temperature ranging between 68° and 72° in the summer, and between 57° and 70° in the winter. The equability of the temperature causes St. Helena to be sometimes resorted to by Anglo-Indians as a sanotarium.

TOWNS.—Jamestown, the capital, is on the north-west side of the island, at one of the four openings giving access to the interior from the sea. Both the town and the harbour are protected by strong batteries on the adjacent heights.

ASCENSION.

THIS small island, in latitude 7·56 S. and long. 14·25 W., was discovered by Gallego, a Portuguese, in 1501. It is 3,417 miles from Plymouth, 760 from St. Helena, and 900 from Cape Palmas in Africa.

Its form resembles a leaf with its point to the East, 7½ miles from E. to W., and 6½ from N. to S., with a circumference of 22 miles, and area of 38 square miles.

The climate is the driest and most salubrious in the world, being tempered by the S.E. trade wind; the temperature ranges in the hottest months from 85° on the shore to 76° on the high land. The great drawback is the limited supply of water, from the small rainfall; but this will no doubt improve as the island becomes more wooded, there being at present sixteen small springs.

The surface of Ascension is very rugged and barren, consisting of extinguished craters and lava streams in different stages of decomposition, with dark ravines filled with scoria and pumice stone. The highest point is the Green Mountain, 2,820 feet above the sea, the only spot of cultivation in the island, rising "a graceful oasis amidst waste and desolation." To the north of the mountain is a small spring, discovered by Dampier in 1701, after his ship the *Roebuck* foundered off the island.

The island is visited by the sea turtle from Christmas to Midsummer, to deposit their eggs in the sand; as many as fifty or sixty are frequently turned of a night, and then transported to ponds in the town. They weigh from 600 to 800 lbs., and are sold to the shipping for £2 10*s.* each. The eggs of the tropical swallow, or "wide-awake," furnish an important item of food.

Georgetown, the only station, is in a small bay on the west or leeward side, with a fort to protect the stores and tanks. It is entirely under the Admiralty, the Governor being a Captain R.N., and borne on the books of the guard-ship at the Cape. Communication with the shore is frequently interrupted by the setting-in of rollers, or a heavy swell producing a high surf on the leeward shore without apparent cause, chiefly from December to April, the most tranquil period of the year. This phenomenon prevails simultaneously, but in a less degree, at St. Helena and Fernando Noronha.

Ascension was garrisoned in 1815 by a detachment from St. Helena, and subsequently by a company of marines; to this corps all the improvements in the island may be attributed. Stores, barracks and batteries were built, and roads constructed under circumstances of no ordinary difficulty, as well as the formation of gardens on the Green Mountain. During the period of the suppression of the slave trade it was the headquarters of the

South African Squadron, with depots of stores and provisions, since much reduced. There are now only 200 people on the island.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—Ascension is an island lying at a distance of 960 miles to the westward of Cape Palmas, on the West African coast, in 7° 56′ south latitude and 14° 24′ west longitude. It has a length of eight miles and a breadth of six miles, its area being about 34 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The whole surface of the island is mountainous, and it has in general a rugged and desolate aspect. The parts next the sea, which are somewhat more level than the rest, consist of rough lava rocks, intersected by deep fissures and ravines. Water is obtained from a spring in the interior.

Wild goats are plentiful, and a few sheep and cattle are reared. Turtle of large size are also found here in great abundance.

Besides being a place of call for homeward-bound vessels in the China and Colonial trade, Ascension has been maintained by Great Britain, since 1815, as a naval station, and as a victualling station for the squadron engaged in the suppression of the African slave-trade.

The Government settlement is at Georgetown, on the north-west coast, where there is a secure anchorage.

TRISTAN D'ACUNHA.

TRISTAN D'ACUNHA is the principal of a group of islands, lying in lat. 37° 6′ S. and long. 12° 2′ W. It was taken possession of by a military force during the residence of Napoleon at St. Helena. Upon his death the garrison was withdrawn with the exception of three men, who, with certain shipwrecked sailors, became the founders of the present settlement. For a long time only one of the settlers had a wife, but subsequently the others contracted with a sea captain to bring them wives from St. Helena. The population has since increased to about a hundred, and remains practically stationary, as the younger and more ambitious settlers migrate in batches to the Cape. The inhabitants practically enjoy their possessions in common, and there is no strong drink on the island, consequently there are no quarrels and no crime. It was at one time proposed to give them laws and a regular government, but this was found unnecessary for the above reasons, and they remain under the moral rule of their oldest inhabitant Governor Green, successor to Governor Glass, Corporal in the Royal Artillery, and founder of the settlement. The islands are within the diocese of Cape Town, and a chaplain is maintained there by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The inhabitants are spoken of as long-lived, healthy, moral, religious, and hospitable to strangers. They have recently been intrusted with a life-boat by the Board of Trade, and a code of signals.*

* Colonial Office List.

INACCESSIBLE ISLAND

Is a high mass of rock, with a table summit nearly square, with sides two miles in length. The highest point, 1840 feet above the sea, is to the west of the island.

The outward-bound Indiaman *Blenden Hall* was wrecked here in 1821, and the crew and passengers were rescued by Governor Glasse, and taken to Tristan d'Acunha. Two German officers, after surviving the campaign of 1870, were also wrecked in 1871, and suffered great hardship until taken off by H.M.S. *Challenger* in 1873.

This island is a great resort of penguins and sea-fowl.

NIGHTINGALE ISLANDS.

A GROUP of three, the largest being one mile long and three-quarters wide, with two peaks respectively 1105 and 960 feet above the sea.

The smaller islets, Stoltenhoff and Middle Isle, are large rocks about half a mile in length, 325 and 150 feet in beight. A zone of kelp extends a quarter of a mile from the east side of the islands; they are visited by seals and sea elephants in large numbers.

CEYLON.

CEYLON.

GOVERNOR,
HON. SIR ARTHUR H. GORDON, G.C.M.G.

COMMANDING THE FORCES,
MAJOR-GENERAL SIR J. C. McLEOD, K.C.B.

COLONIAL SECRETARY AND LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR,
HON. C. C. SMITH, C.M.G.

TREASURER,
HON. W. D. WRIGHT.

AUDITOR-GENERAL,
HON. W. H. RAVENSCROFT.

SURVEYOR-GENERAL,
LIEUTENANT-COLONEL CLARKE, C.M.G., R.A.

DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC WORKS,
R. MacBRIDE.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
SIR BRUCE L. BURNSIDE.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. L. B. CLARENCE, HON. HENRY DIAS.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. FRANCIS FLEMING.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL,
T. E. B. SKINNER.

IV. CEYLON, STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, HONG KONG, LABUAN, & BRITISH NORTH BORNEO.

70
80
90
100
110
120
130
30
20
10
CHINESE EMPIRE
INDIA
Bay of Bengal
Arabian Sea
CHINA SEA
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
YELLOW SEA
EASTERN SEA
Shanghai
Yokohama
Nagasaki
KIUSIU
Sasebo
Sanboki I.
Sui san I.
Nawi
Sui san I.
FORMOSA
Bashee Channel
Amoy
Canton
Hong kong
Tai-wan
Tai-pak
Foo-chow
Ningpo
Tai hu
Nan king
Chin kiang
Yang tse kiang
Hoang-ho
Tien tsin
Peking
Gulf of Pe-chee-lee
Corea
Tsu shima
Gulf of Tong King
Tong-king
Hanoi
HAI NAN
Kiung-chow
Great Wall
HUE
Tourane
Limoon
C. Bojeador
LUZON I.
Calayan
Mindoro
Panay
Samar I.
Negros
Palawan I.
Sulu Sea
Mindanao
MINDANAO I.
Zamboanga
Tagapura
Sulu Archip.
Labuan I.
Brunai
NORTH BORNEO
Talaut Is.
DUTCH BORNEO
Celebes
Macassar
Java Sea
Java
Sumatra
Singapore
STRAITS SETTLEMENTS
Penang
Malacca
Pinang
Natuna Is.
Bintang
C. Sirik
Tringanu
Pahang
Kelantan
Patani
Junk Ceylon I.
Nicobar Is.
Andaman Is.
Achin
Gulf of Siam
Cambodia
LOWER COCHIN CHINA
Saigon
Quinhon
Bassac
Korat
Ubon
Khong
Mekong R.
Cambodia
Shampon
Ratburi
Bangkok
Tavoy
Mergui
Mergui Archp.
Tenasserim
Moulmein
Martaban
Rangoon
Bassein
Prome
Arakan
Akyab
Ramree I.
Sandoway
Cheduba I.
Manipur
Assam
Brahmaputra R.
Chittagong
Mouths of the Ganges
Barisal
Dacca
Jessore
Berhampore
Moorshedabad
Rajmahal
Patna
Benares
Allahabad
Lucknow
Cawnpore
Agra
Delhi
Meerut
Umballa
Lahore
Multan
Indus R.
Sukkur
Hyderabad
Indian Desert
Jeypore
Ajmir
Gujerat
Kattywar
Cape Comorin
Ceylon
Trinkamali
Colombo
Galle
Adam's Peak
Pondicherry
Madras
Negapatam
Tranquebar
Cuddalore
Pulicat
Nellore
Masulipatam
Vizagapatam
Ganjam
Cuttack
Orissa
Godavari R.
Nagpur
Jaipur
Bombay
Goa
Belgaum
Bangalore
Seringapatam
Cauvery R.
Coimbatore
Carwar
Mangalore
Calicut
Cannanore
Malabar
Western Ghauts
Eastern Ghauts
Vindhya Mts
Nerbudda R.
Taptee R.
Surat
Cape Comorin
Palk Strait
Gulf of Manaar
Carvalhos Mts
Aravalli Mts
Himalaya Mts
Kuen Lun Mts
Thian Shan Mts
Nan Shan
Koko Nor
Lan-chow
Si-ngan
Hoang-ho
Yang tse kiang
Chung-king
Tung-ting hu
Kiang
Yun Nan
Ta-li-fu
Yun nan
Mau
Kwei lin
Kwei Tcheou
Lithang
Batang
Tali
Bhamo
Ava
Irrawaddy R.
Mandalay
Prome
Pegu
Sittang R.
Martaban
Tavoy
Mergui
Junk Ceylon
Salang
Patani
Kelantan
Pahang
Tringanu
Johore
Singapore
Malacca
Penang
Pinang
Natuna Is.
Bintang
Tambelan Is.
Anambas Is.
Sooloo Archip.
Palawan
Balabac I.
Balabac Str.
Borneo
Celebes
Java Sea
Java
Sumatra

CEYLON.

THIS "utmost Indian isle" of the old geographers, called by the Hindu poets the pendent jewel of India, is situated to the south-east of Hindustan, lying between 5° 55′ and 9° 51′ N. lat., and 79° 41′ and 81° 54′ E. long. Its length from north to south is 266 miles, its greatest width from east to west 140½ miles, and its area 24,702 square miles, or 15,809,280 acres, about one sixth the size of Ireland. The colony is separated from India by a channel about 40 miles wide, which is almost bridged across by the island of Mannár and a series of coral reefs and sand banks known as Adam's Bridge; the only passage through them being the Paumben channel, with 12 to 14 feet of water.

Several islands are situated off the north coast of Ceylon, the largest being Jaffna, which is one of the most populous and best cultivated parts of the colony. The Keeling or Cocos Islands, which lie between lat. 11° 50′ and 12° 45′ N. and long. 96° 50′ E., were transferred to the colony by Letters Patent under the Great Seal of the United Kingdom. Including these and other dependent islands the total area of the Colony is 25,742 square miles.

The island was known to ancient voyagers as long ago as the time of King Solomon, but its authentic history commences at the fifth century B.C., when an Aryan invasion from the valley of the Ganges established the Sinhalese dynasty. Buddhism was introduced 306 B.C., and has been preserved ever since in comparative purity. Many interesting relics of antiquity and inscriptions are found in the island, which, with the annals left by the Sinhalese kings, are of great value in revising Indian chronology. Massive carved stone ruins of ancient temples and palaces, some being more than two thousand years old, are frequently found, overgrown with trees, in the depths of the forests. The most extensive of these relics of the former prosperity of Ceylon are to be found at Anurádhapura and Pollonnáruwa, which were the capitals of the island in its early days. At the former place is the celebrated bo-tree (*Ficus religiosa*), an object of great veneration to all Buddhists. It was brought from Urúwelaya in the year 288 B.C., as a branch of the tree under which Buddha underwent apotheosis.

The seat of the Sinhalese power was at Anurádhapura from 474 B.C. to A.D. 769, when, on account of the frequent Tamil invasions, it was moved to Pollonnáruwa. The island was known to the Greeks and Romans as "Taprobane": Mohammedans, Burmese, Siamese, Chinese, and the people of India, were also acquainted with it in early times. In the year 543 B.C., Wijaya, a prince from northern India, conquered the native rulers of the country, and from that time down to the year 1815, when the last

Kandyan king was deposed, the Sinhalese chronicles record the names of nearly 170 kings and queens during whose reigns the country made great progress.

The Chinese captured the island in the fifteenth century and imposed an annual tribute upon it; they also opened up an export trade in *kaolin*, a peculiar clay used in the manufacture of that beautiful translucent porcelain for which China was famed two hundred years before its production in Europe. In 1240 the Government became disorganised and weak; the northern part of the island was abandoned, and the capital was removed southwards to the more inaccessible hill country, Dambadeniya, Kotté, and Gampola successively.

In 1505, a Portuguese named Almeyda, entered a port of Ceylon by accident, and met with a hospitable reception from the natives; in view of the great quantities of cinnamon which the island then produced his countrymen were induced to form commercial settlements on the west and south of the island, but they made no advance into the interior; in the next century, owing to their avarice, and the cruelty they resorted to in order to establish Christianity, the natives sought the assistance of the Dutch and dispossessed them. In 1656 the Dutch seized the principal Portuguese town, Colombo, and drove them from the island. The natives in gratitude for their deliverance ceded most of their valuable districts to the Dutch, but they soon found that they had only exchanged one enemy for another, and the result was that sanguinary wars ensued in which the Dutch were victors, and the natives were forced to seek refuge in the interior of the island, where they remained independent. The Dutch, however, did much to benefit the country by making canals and improving the means of communication in those parts of the island which they occupied; they also paid considerable attention to the education of the people, and provided a staff of chaplains to convert them to Protestantism; but their principal care was to establish a lucrative trade with their own country. Cinnamon was the first great export; this was followed by pearls, and still later by pepper, areca nuts, cinnamon, oil, and many other productions which form part of the export trade of the colony at the present time. The Dutch also promoted agricultural pursuits in the island.

In the year 1795, after Holland had been erected into the Batavian republic by the French, Ceylon, with several other Dutch settlements in the east, was taken possession of by the British and annexed to the Presidency of Madras, under the Government of the East India Company; but five years later (1801) it was constituted a separate colony, and in the following year was formally ceded to England by the Peace of Amiens. At this time it is probable that the whole of the island was covered with forests, the present large towns being then insignificant hamlets. Kandy was only a small collection of huts round the king's palace.

War was declared against the native Government of the interior in 1815, the Kandyan King taken prisoner, and his principal town captured, the whole of the island then being placed under British rule. A council of Government was appointed by Letters Patent under the Great Seal in April 1831, and by a supplementary commission to the then governor (March 1833) the form of government was established which, with a few modifications, exists at the present time.

"The Sinhalese, it is needless to say, are not barbarians; among them

a high civilization has long existed, though under their earlier native kings they had attained a loftier grade of culture than in later times."

The climate is, for a tropical country, comparatively healthy, the heat in the plains, which is about the same throughout the year, being much less oppressive than in the neighbouring peninsula of Hindustan. The annual mean temperature along the coast is about 80° Fahrenheit; at Kandy, 1,665 feet above sea level, it is 76° to 90°; and at Trincomalee 74° to 91°. There is a great variety of climate in the mountain ranges, the thermometer at the hill station of Nuwara Eliya, about 6,000 feet above sea level, falling at night as low as 32°. The difference in the daily and monthly mean temperature in various parts of the island is also considerable. Where the low country is affected by the S.W. monsoon rains, the diurnal variation of the thermometer is never more than 12°; the air is always saturated with moisture, and there is no really cold weather. The coolest time of the year is from May to October, the showers being frequent and the sea-breeze steady during these months. February, March, and April are the hottest months.

In the drier parts of the island the range of the thermometer is great, being in some places as much as 20°. Notwithstanding an annual rainfall of more than 40 inches, the S.W. monsoon, a hot wind which blows continuously for six months in the year, dries up the tanks of drinking water in these parts, stunts the growth of vegetation, dries up the soil, and parches the grass and leaves. During this period agricultural and forest labour is carried on under much difficulty.

The government is administered by a Governor assisted by an Executive Council of five members, viz., the Lieutenant-Governor and Colonial Secretary, the Officer commanding the troops, the Queen's Advocate, the Treasurer, and the Auditor General; and a Legislative Council of fifteen members, including the members of the Executive Council, four other office-holders, and six unofficial members. No vote or resolution can be passed in the Legislative Council, and no question be admitted to debate, when the object of such resolution, ordinance, or question is to dispose of or charge any part of the revenue of the island, unless such vote shall have been first proposed by the Governor.

For purposes of general administration, the island is divided into seven provinces, presided over by Government agents, who protect the rights of the Crown, and promote the welfare of the people: their assistants and subordinate head-men are the channel of communication between the Government and the natives.

Justice is administered by the Supreme Court, which has an original criminal jurisdiction, and decides appeals from the inferior courts, both in civil and criminal cases; and by the Police Courts and Courts of Requests, which dispose respectively of trivial criminal and civil suits, their powers being confined to cases not punishable with more than £5 fine, or three months imprisonment. There are also the District Courts, which have the criminal jurisdiction in all cases not cognisable by the Courts of Requests, and a civil jurisdiction in all cases. In addition to these there are the Gansabáwas, or village councils, with powers to deal with petty offences and trifling claims. They have worked exceedingly well, being thoroughly adapted to the genius of the people; and, besides settling a considerable amount of litigation, provide a valuable machinery for carrying out local

improvements. They are empowered to make rules subject to the approval of the Governor and Executive Council relating to their village economy, and it is to their credit that in many cases they have voluntarily provided school buildings, and undertaken the cost of current expenses and repairs.

The Colombo Breakwater, which has been recently completed at a cost of nearly £650,000, was begun in 1875 under the direction of Sir J. Coode, C.E., and consists of a single arm of large concrete blocks, weighing about six tons each, on a rubble foundation of 36,650 tons, and it runs from the shore in a northerly direction for a distance of 4,200 feet, terminating with a slight curve. The Colombo Waterworks, which are to supply that town with 2,000,000 gallons of water daily, will probably be completed during this month (May, 1886) at an estimated cost of £291,000.

The total expenditure in public works (exclusive of the railway) was in 1884, 1,709,165 rupees.

Most of the trade of the country is done by the Moors or Mahommedans, who are the most enterprising class, and take the place of the Indian "baniah." Another interesting class consists of the so-called Afghans—generally Beluchis—who, coming originally from Hyderabad in the Deccan, now make a living by lending money to the Tamil Estate coolies, in which business they have a monopoly.

In the Trincomalee district several of the Malay villages have hitherto been exclusively employed in timber felling. The chief timbers cut were satin-wood, paté, ebony and halmitta; these have been removed by the traders, and a great portion of this district has now been cleared of all matured timber. The satin-wood is used principally for railway sleepers, and the ebony for Chinese chop-sticks; formerly a great quantity of ebony was exported to Europe, but, owing to the increased use of ebonized woods, the demand for the genuine article has greatly fallen off. The question of forestry in Ceylon is one to which much attention has been devoted of late years, and various rules have been framed from time to time with a view to protect forests which are Crown property, and to regulate the timber traffic. Until within the last few years timber has been recklessly cut down for chena cultivation and other purposes, and as no system of planting has obtained, the timber trade of the Colony has suffered considerably. The great plains in the north of the island, however, are still covered with noble forests of many trees, from the cashew nut, which decays a month after it is felled, to the ebony and satin wood, which can alone resist for any great length of time the climate and white ants of Ceylon.

The following is a return of the looms and mills working in the years 1883 and 1884; they are, however, with the exception of the oil-mills, of a very simple kind: Looms, 1883, 910—1884, 1,040; oil-mills, 1883, 1,969—1884, 1,922; sugar-mills, 1883, 8—1884, 8.

The fishing industry affords employment to a great number of persons round the coast; in 1884, 18 ships, 5,174 boats, 1,028 canoes, 259 padás and 639 kattomarams were engaged in fishing for seer, sharks, talipot, sardines, bonitoes, and other fish which visit the Ceylon coasts in immense quantities; 1,179,000 live chanks (*i.e.*, live shells), and 409 cwt. of Cêche-de-mer were also taken in that year. The chanks are found

buried in mud in the shallow water of the channel between Jaffna and Elephant Pass. The pearl fisheries have also employed many persons hitherto, but in 1884 there was no fishing for pearl oysters. The chief banks are near Aripo, off the northern part of the west coast, from six to twelve miles from the shore, but owing to the migratory character of the spat the yield is a most precarious one. Some of the divers come from the Persian Gulf, but they are principally Malabars from Cape Comorin.

About one-fifth of the island is under cultivation, and the principal productions were, in 1884, as follows:—Rice, 600,000 acres; other grain about 100,000 acres; coffee, 292,799 acres; tea, 58,000 acres; chinchona, 33,000 acres; cocoanuts, 560,000 acres; cinnamon, 35,000 acres; tobacco, 16,500 acres; areca, palmyrah and other palms, 60,000 acres; caçao, 12,000 acres; and pasturage, 710,500 acres.

Paddy is the only permanent grain crop, and its culture is more popular amongst the natives than any other, although very little profit can now be derived from it. Kurakkan (rági), maize, gingelly, and other dry grains are only grown in chena or "jhum" clearings, or in gardens.

The staple product of the Colony is coffee, the bulk of which is exported to England, and fetches a higher price in the London market than that grown in any other country. It grows best at elevations between 2,000 and 5,000 feet, with a rainfall of more than 80 inches. The exports of this article have much diminished of late years, owing to the ravages of a fungus known as the coffee-leaf disease (*Hemileia vastatrix*). A comparatively new product is Liberian coffee, which is largely grown in the low hilly country between the western coast and the mountain ranges. Chinchona, tea, and cocoa are rising products, the exports of these having very largely increased during the past few years, as will be seen from the following figures: Chinchona, 1879, 1,200,000 lbs.—1882, 3,099,000 lbs.; tea, 1879, 103,000 lbs.—1882, 623,000 lbs.; cocoa, 1879, 13,664 lbs.—1882, 114,016 lbs.

A recent writer in *The Globe* remarks that "Ceylon appears to have at last found her true mission. At one time her industrious inhabitants conceived that the production of spices was their special duty to humanity. Next they turned their attention to coffee, and did a great trade until the competition of Central and South America, aided by the exertions of a detestable insect in the Sinhalese plantations, drove them out of the market. They next took a leaf out of the book of Madras by going in for chinchona cultivation, which has fairly prospered. But it is tea that now constitutes the insular *specialité*. The average price obtained for its teas in the London market during the year was 1s. 3½d., as against 1s. 1½d. for Indian, and only 10½d. for China. As yet, the quantity is comparatively small, few of the gardens having come into full yield. But every year witnesses a large augmentation without any deterioration of quality or price, and when the whole 105,000 acres—the same acreage as Assam gives up to tea—is in full bearing, Ceylon will become one of the chief producing countries in the world. Nor is there much fear of the supply outrunning demand. An inquiry for Ceylon tea is springing up on the Continent, where the delicate flavour gains increasing approval."

Cinnamon (which is indigenous) and citronella oil are also exported in considerable quantities.

About 480,000 acres are now devoted to the cultivation of cocoa-nut

palms; nearly the whole of this area being owned by natives. This branch of agriculture is very profitable, and the uses of the cocoa-nut palm among the natives very numerous. It serves them with building and thatching materials, food, drink, sugar, oil, and domestic utensils; it also produces coir, arrack (a spirit in demand in the Madras Presidency), koppera (the dried kernel), and other miscellaneous products which are exported, in addition to the large quantities consumed locally. The jaggery palm is also a valuable tree, from the sap of which the natives prepare jaggery sugar and toddy wine, sago from the pith, fishing-lines from the fibre of the leaves, and rope from the leaf-stalks. The state of the farming industry of the island may be roughly estimated from the following returns of live-stock for the years 1883 and 1884: Horses, 1883, 4,008—1884, 3,683; horned cattle, 1883, 1,091,500—1884, 963,896; goats, 1883, 96,600—1884, 82,341; sheep, 1883, 68,672—1884, 53,757.

"In spite of Ceylon being so near India it is probable that it has never formed a part of the continent of Asia as at present constituted. The Ceylon elephant is specifically identical with that of India, but at the same time its variety is nearer that of Sumatra than that of the continent. But in Ceylon we do not find the tiger, hyena, cheetah, wolf, fox, various deer, birds, &c., common in India, while several of the Ceylon animals are wanting on the other side of Palk's Straits; and some of the insects have more affinity with those of Australia than of India. On the other hand, the likeness to the fauna of the Indian Archipelago is almost superficial, for many Malay forms, such as the Argus pheasant and the rhinoceros of Sumatra, are absent. The gaur (*Bos gauras*) is not now found in Ceylon, though at one time it seems to have been present. On the whole the facts we are in possession of do not point to Ceylon having ever been actually joined to Sumatra nor to India, but to its having been part of a southern Continent now nearly all submerged, and of which southern India, then entirely disconnected from northern India, was a portion."*

The upset price of Crown land is 10 rupees an acre, though forest land suitable for coffee cultivation has realised as much as 230 rupees.

Rice and paddy form the principal article of diet of the native population, and about 660,000 acres are devoted to its cultivation: taking the produce of an acre at, say, 20 bushels, the result is 13,200,000 bushels; but, in addition to this, over 7,000,000 bushels of that grain were imported in 1881. This food is generally supplemented by fruit and vegetables.

Customs duties are levied on various imports, among which are arms and ammunition, cotton goods, metals, all grain except paddy, beer, wine and spirits (the latter are very heavily taxed), and on all goods, wares and merchandise not specially exempted. The chief of these exemptions are live-stock, machinery of various kinds, and railway material. The amount realised from the above source in 1884 was 2,743,557 rupees. The only export duties consist of a royalty of 25 cents per cwt. on plumbago, and 100 rupees per head on elephants; there is also a small duty of 10 cents per cwt. on all coffee, tea and cocoa, and 20 cents per cwt. on all chinchona exported. The revenue from port and harbour dues, including port clearances, boats and moorings, pilotage, and Colombo Harbour dues and rent of grounds was, in 1884, 456,048 rupees. In the same year the

* Dr. Robert Brown's 'Countries of the World.'

land sales realised 264,885 rupees; rents (bridges, canals, Government buildings and houses), 340,343 rupees; railway receipts, 2,473,508 rupees; licenses, 1,538,600 rupees; stamps, 742,025 rupees; sale of salt (which is a Government monopoly), 816,010 rupees, and timber, 203,558 rupees, which with other miscellaneous receipts brought the total revenue up to 12,402,365 rupees or £1,162,721. This, however, does not include the local revenues raised by the municipalities of Colombo, Kandy, and Galle; by the Provincial Road Committees, and by the Local Boards of Health and Improvement which have been established in the towns of Kalutara, Negombo, Matara, Puttalam, Gampola, Nuwara Eliya, Kúrunégala, and Badulla.

Ceylon may be said to be prospering fairly well, notwithstanding the fungus which is preying on the coffee leaves, the beetles that bore into the stem of the coffee plant and make their home in its bark, and the rat which eats its buds and blossoms.

Sir Edward Barnes, who was Governor of Ceylon from 1824 to 1831, made a great point of opening up roads into the country, thus effectually crushing the warlike spirit of the Kandyans. Amongst others a good macadamised road was completed from Colombo to Kandy (a distance of 72 miles), and in 1832 the first mail-coach in Asia was started and ran between those two towns. In 1867 this was superseded by the railway, and now Ceylon has 1,300 miles of metalled roads, and 1,507 miles of gravelled and natural roads: these are exclusive of roads within municipal limits and all minor roads which are not under the charge of the Department of Public Works. The cost of constructing these roads is great, and the expenses of keeping them in repair very considerable, owing to the heavy traffic constantly passing over them where railway carriage is not available: they are, however, always kept in perfect order notwithstanding the difficulties of country and climate. Every male between eighteen and fifty-five years of age is bound to perform six days' labour every year on the roads, or to contribute a rupee and a half (two rupees in the town of Colombo), by way of commutation. The amount collected as commutation by the Road Committees in 1882 was 871,788 rupees; but this is insignificant as compared with the outlay.

At least 177 miles of railway are opened in the island, and more are in course of construction. There is a line from Colombo to Kandy (74½ miles), and a branch line of 54½ miles into the coffee districts. Southwards the railway has been extended to Kalutara, a distance of 27¾ miles from Colombo. In October, 1880, a railway was opened from Kandy to Mantale (17 miles), and a line is being constructed through the mountains from Nawalapitiya to Nanu Oya (42 miles), and is already completed as far as Talawakele (28½ miles). 1147 miles of telegraph wires and 7½ miles of telephone wire are now in use, and 167 miles of canals.

A fortnightly mail service is carried on by steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Co. between Ceylon and Brindisi, Venice and intermediate ports and Bombay on one side, and Madras and Calcutta, Straits Settlements and China on the other; there is also a monthly service between Ceylon and Australia. In addition to these there is a fortnightly mail service by the steamers of the Messageries Maritimes Company between Ceylon, Naples and Marseilles, and Ceylon and Calcutta, Straits and

China. The passage to Brindisi or Marseilles generally occupies from 18 to 21 days, and to Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, Singapore and China, 4, 12, 6, 7 and 15 days respectively. The British India Steam Navigation Company affords further facilities for communication with the Indian ports. Their steamers leave Colombo weekly for Bombay and Calcutta, calling at intermediate ports.

During 1884 the tonnage of the shipping entered inwards was 1,758,445; and 1,752,121 tons cleared outwards; a steady increase having manifested itself since the effects of the construction of the breakwater at Colombo have been felt.

The island produces gold, platinum, silver, tin, iron, lead, quicksilver, manganese and salt (which is a Government monopoly), but no coal, with the exception of a little anthracite. Plumbago, or graphite, is however the only mineral of commercial importance that Ceylon exports, and this is of the finest quality for crucible purposes that the world produces. The mines are from 100 feet to 300 feet in depth, and are worked exclusively by the Sinhalese. The trade, which is only of 40 years' standing, has doubled itself within the last ten years. In 1884 there were 81 plumbago pits and mines working (not including those in the southern province). From time immemorial the Sinhalese have manufactured rude tools of fine temper from the excellent iron which exists in vast quantities in the western, southern, and central provinces. In addition to the above-named minerals about twenty different kinds of precious stones are found, among them being amethyst, topaz, garnet, ruby, sapphire, turquoise, and rock crystal, which are brought down by the rivers after heavy rains. In 1884, 500 gem quarries were working.

The Kandyan kings adopted as the most effectual means of defence the maintenance of a dense belt of forest, 30 to 40 miles broad, all round the Kandyan or central hill country. This forest was carefully protected, and when the Dutch and British attempted to seize the Kandyan country they experienced great difficulty in traversing this forest belt and in subsequently keeping up communication with the seaboard. This means of defence has long since proved ineffectual, and no trace of it can now be found. When the British first took possession of the island a much larger military force was kept up than was necessary; but, as this fact became realised, several regiments were withdrawn, and in 1865 a Commission appointed by the Secretary of State decided that the force should consist of one regiment of British infantry, one of native (the Ceylon Rifles, which were disbanded in 1873), and one brigade of artillery. The colony is now protected by a European garrison of the nominal strength of 1,092 men, for which 1,240,000 rupees per annum are paid to the Imperial Government. A volunteer force has also been instituted, and its total strength, at the end of 1884, was 760 of all ranks.

The population of Ceylon in 1823 is estimated to have been about 750,000; by the census taken in 1881 it was ascertained to be 2,763,984, an increase of 14·67 per cent. on the previous census of 1871. The principal part of the inhabitants are Sinhalese, descendants of the colonists from the valley of the Ganges, who first settled in the island in the year 543 B.C. In addition to these there are many Tamils, Moors, Malays, and other Asiatics, most of whom are coolies employed on the coffee estates of the colony: their number has not been computed, but it is

believed to exceed 200,000. They are under no indentures, and are at liberty to quit upon giving a month's notice to their employer.

The majority of the people are Buddhists of the strictest type, but there are Sivites, one of the Hindu sects, in large numbers, Roman Catholics, Mahommedans, and Protestants of various sects.

At the end of 1881 the number of scholars in the Government schools was 23,626, and in schools aided and inspected by Government, 61,131; the cost being 482,841 rupees, as compared with 6,879 scholars and an expenditure of 161,660 rupees in 1868. This improvement is due to the institution of a Department of Public Instruction and the adoption of the system of payments on results. The proportion of scholars to the schools has also greatly increased. In 1834 there were 1,105 schools, attended by 13,891 scholars, whereas in 1884, 102,062 scholars attended 1,821 schools. The schools in the above return are of various denominations, including Roman Catholics, Protestants, Buddhists, Mahommedans and Sivites. It is also worthy of note that Colombo has a school of agriculture. School buildings have in many instances been provided by the village councils or Gansabáwas, instituted in 1871, and they have not only voluntarily undertaken the current expenses and repairs, but have made elementary education compulsory. In advanced education the Sinhalese have made great progress of late years, many of them taking leading professional positions. Since the opening of the Ceylon Medical College, in 1870, about 50 Sinhalese students have qualified and obtained licences to practise surgery and medicine, and some of them have come to England to qualify for degrees at the British Universities. The legal profession in Ceylon is almost entirely occupied by the Sinhalese as judges, barristers, solicitors, or notaries; and educated Sinhalese are now becoming so numerous that they find it difficult to secure suitable openings in life.

"This island is noted for its loveliness; the voyager who approaches it from Europe usually sights it near break of day: the north-east monsoon is blowing, and Adam's Peak, 7,420 feet high, towering majestically above the other lofty mountains, of which it forms a part, is generally visible; but the fleecy clouds which frequently hang round the summit conceal the cap of the holy mount of the Buddhists from view, though at other times it may often be seen sixty miles from land, looking at that distance like a pillar of smoke. The west and south coasts are low and fringed with cocoa-nut trees, which grow down to the water's edge, and impart to the island the beautiful appearance for which it is so justly celebrated. The eye of the voyager, wearied with the monotony of sea, tired of green waves and barren foam, lights with relief on the varied expanse of verdure set out before him and listens with pleasure to the unwonted boom of the surf breaking on the flat beach, and sending its spray up to the very roots of the cocoa-nut trees. Crossing and recrossing the harbour are cargo-boats heaped with lading for the vessels, their swarthy rowers stimulating each other with a monotonous kind of chant, and the traveller lands amidst all the stir and confusion of an active commerce—crowds of coolies and bullock-carts and piles of merchandise, rice, coffee, oil, and cinnamon. Tulip trees grow around the landing-place at Colombo, and on each side of the principal streets, affording not only an agreeable shade from the tropical sun, but giving a garden-like appearance to the place, their green leaves contrasting vividly with the peculiar red hue of the roads—one of

the first things that attracts the eye of a stranger. The 'spicy breezes" so universally associated with Ceylon are due not so much to cinnamon and other spices as to the overpowering perfumes exhaled by the lemon grass, by the honey-scented nilla, and by the coffee plantations, which when in full blossom send forth a jessamine odour.

"All the mountains are covered with verdure to their summits; but the slopes of many of them, once clothed with great forest trees, have been cleared and turned into finely cultivated coffee plantations."*

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—Ceylon is an island in the Indian Ocean, to the south-east of the southern extremity of Hindostan, from which it is separated by Palk Strait and the Gulf of Manaar. It is of compact form, and in shape somewhat like a pear. The coast line is, upon the whole, regular and unbroken, but extensive salt-water lagoons occur in certain parts. The extreme length of the island from north to south is 266 miles, and its greatest breadth 140 miles. Its total area is 25,742 square miles, or about one-sixth less than the area of Ireland.

NATURAL FEATURES. — The interior of Ceylon forms an elevated plateau, the higher portions of which have a mean height of some 6,000 feet above the sea-level. From this plateau rise various peaks to a further height of upwards of 2,000 feet. The culminating point is Pedaratallagulla, 8,300 feet high, but Adam's Peak, further to the southward, falls little short of this elevation, having a total height of 7,420 feet. The whole mountain region of Ceylon covers an area of about 4,300 miles. The northern part of the island is generally level, and a belt of low-lying land, of some considerable width, is found everywhere next the coast. The mountain districts contain beautiful and fertile valleys, with elevated plains. A chain of small islands and slightly submerged sandbanks, called Adam's Bridge, serves as a kind of connecting link between the north-west coast of Ceylon and the adjacent peninsula of Hindostan. The lakes are numerous, and some are of considerable dimensions—some of them, like the lakes of Colombo and Negombo, formed by the embouchures of rivers having become closed by an accumulation of silt, and, to use Mr. Dickson's words, "the rivers, swollen by the rain, forming new openings for themselves, and leaving their ancient channels converted into lakes."

CAPES.—The principal headlands are Dondra Head, the most southerly point of the island; Kerinde Point and Foul Point, on the east coast; and Point Palmyra, in the extreme north.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.—Ceylon contains numerous rivers, but only a few of them are known geographically by distinctive names. The longest is the Mahavilla-Ganga, about 200 miles in length, which, rising near the centre of the island, flows in a north-easterly direction, entering the sea by several mouths, in the neighbourhood of Trincomalee Bay. Other rivers are the Mandrai Aar, on the east coast; the Kerinde Oya and the Nilwalle-Ganga, on the south coast; and the Kalu-Ganga, the Keloni, the Polgaha

* Dr. Robert Brown's 'Countries of the World.'

welle Ambepusse, the Dedura Oya, and the Aripo, on the west coast. The largest and best harbours are those of Trincomalee, on the east coast, and Galle, at the south-west extremity of the island.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—The island is divided into seven provinces, the western, north-western, southern, central, eastern, north-central, and northern. The principal towns are: Colombo, the capital, a place of considerable trade, with some 35,000 inhabitants, which possesses a roadstead affording secure anchorage, except during the south-west monsoons; Galle (or Point de Galle), with an excellent harbour, a great steam-packet station; Trincomalee, a fortified town on the east coast, with a good harbour and a fair amount of trade; Kandy, in the interior, formerly the capital of the native sovereigns of the island, but now only a large village; and Newera Ellia, 47 miles to the southward of Kandy, which is used as a sanatorium, from its elevation and consequent low temperature.

THE COCOS OR KEELING ISLANDS, which are situated in the Bay of Bengal, between 11° 50′ and 12° 45′ north lat., long. 96° 50′ east, are included within the Colony of Ceylon.

THE MALDIVE ARCHIPELAGO, to the south-west of Ceylon, a few degrees north of the Equator, is tributary to the Government of that island, to which the Sultan sends an annual embassy.

MAURITIUS.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
SIR JOHN POPE HENNESEY, K.C.M.G.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR AND COLONIAL SECRETARY,
CLIFFORD LLOYD.

COMMANDER OF FORCES,
COLONEL WM. H. HAWLEY.

RECEIVER-GENERAL,
H. N. D. BEYTS, C.M.G.

AUDITOR-GENERAL,
T. ELLIOTT.

SURVEYOR-GENERAL,
M. CARNEL.

CHIEF JUDGE,
HON. EUGÈNE P. J. LECLÉZIO.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HON. A. MURE, HON. W. H. L. COX, AND HON. F. C. WILLIAMS.

PROCUREUR-GENERAL,
E. PELLEREAU.

MAURITIUS.

MAURITIUS, or the Isle of France, is situated between the tropics in the Indian Ocean, about 500 miles east of Madagascar, between 57° 17′ and 57° 46′ east longitude, and 19° 58′ and 20° 32′ south latitude. It is 1,300 miles from Natal, 2,000 from Cape Comorin, and 2,300 from the Cape of Good Hope. The island is elliptical in form, with a circumference of 150 miles and an area of 708 square miles; its extreme length from north to south is 36 miles, and its greatest breadth from east to west nearly 28 miles. The length of coast-line is about 135 miles. It is of volcanic formation, and surrounded by coral reefs, and it is supposed that this volcano was at one time submarine. Extinct craters of different periods are more or less abundant all over the island. Mauritius is covered with rugged and pointed mountains, some of which, owing to their fantastic shapes, have been described as "fingers pointing heavenwards." These mountain chains average 2,000 feet in altitude, but many of the peaks rise to nearly 3,000 feet. The highest point is the Piton de la Rivière Noire, which is 2,900 feet; Pieter Both and the Pouce are, however, only a few feet less, being 2,874 and 2,707 feet respectively.

The Colony is watered by numerous streams, mostly flowing in deep ravines, with several fine cascades; but none of these rivers are navigable beyond a few hundred yards from the sea.

This famous and beautiful island, the fairer "Malta of the Indian Ocean," as it is called by M. Thiers in his 'History of the Consulate and Empire,' was discovered in 1507 by Dom Pedro Mascarenhas, a Portuguese, and was called Ilha do Cerno; but the first people who occupied it were the Dutch. Their fleet, in 1598, was sailing for the Dutch possessions in the east, under Admiral van Neck, when they encountered a heavy gale after rounding the Cape of Good Hope, and the vessel commanded by Vice-Admiral van Warwick separated from the rest of the squadron and sighted Cerné, as the island was then called, and found it to be uninhabited. They named it Mauritius in honour of their Prince Maurice; planted a piece of ground with vegetable seeds as an experiment. fixed a board, painted with the arms of Holland, to a tree, and then left. The Dutch do not appear to have attempted permanent occupation until 1644, when they established three separate settlements, and colonised the island with a view to suppressing pirate vessels which used it for provisioning purposes. They also built a fort at Grand Port. The Dutch East India Company, however, towards the beginning of the 18th century, began to find that the island was a source of continued troubles, and again abandoned it in 1710. In 1715 it was taken possession of by the French, its name being then changed to the "Isle of France." Six years later

possession was ceded to the French East India Company, who were several times on the point of giving it up, and in 1767 it reverted to the Crown of France. M. Dumas succeeded to the governorship in 1728.

In 1734 the French East India Company sent out the most celebrated of the French Governors, Mahé de Labourdonnais, whose administration extended from 1735 to 1746; he was described by Lord Macaulay as "a man of eminent talents and virtues." It was he who destroyed the formidable band of Maroons who had harassed the settlers for some years, and secured the prosperity of the island by introducing the cultivation of the sugar cane. Labourdonnais also established manufactures of cotton and indigo. His memory is held in the highest esteem by the inhabitants of Mauritius, and a bronze statue, erected to his memory in 1859, stands on one of the public squares, facing the harbour of Port Louis. An attempt to take possession of the island was made by the English under Admiral Boscawen in 1748, but, owing to the inadequacy of the forces at his command, the design had to be abandoned. In 1754 the island was again visited with a devastating hurricane, and the small-pox broke out; and nineteen years later (1773) a third violent hurricane occurred, by which 32 ships were stranded on the banks of the harbour, 300 houses in Port Louis were laid in ruins, and the church fell in, killing several people.

The Isle of France, during the earlier part of the long war with France, was a source of great mischief to our merchant vessels and Indiamen from the facilities it afforded for sorties to be made upon our traders by French men-of-war and privateers. For this reason the East India Company decided on an expedition for its capture, which was effected by General Abercrombie in 1810, and its name was changed again to Mauritius, under which it has since been known. Four years later the possession of the island was confirmed to England by the Treaty of Paris (1814). By the terms of the capitulation the inhabitants were to be permitted to preserve their laws, religion, and institutions; and these conditions have been so far adhered to that the existing laws are based on the Code Napoléon, and Government support is continued to the Roman Catholic Church equally with that afforded to the Church of England establishments.

The island is even now of great importance from a military point of view, situated as it is midway between the English possessions in India and South Africa, which position gives it command, to a certain extent, over the Indian Ocean. The Colony is divided into nine districts, viz. Port Louis, Pamplemousses, Rivière du Rempart, Flacq, Grand Port, Savanne, Moka, Plaines Wilhelms, and Black River.

The climate, though warm, is not unhealthy, and the air pure. The hottest season of the year is from December to April; but it is comparatively cool during the remainder of the year. In the high lands in the interior of the island, the temperature is always several degrees lower than in the city of Port Louis and in the coast districts; on this account the Governor, the officer commanding the troops, and most of the official and other principal inhabitants, now reside in the charming climate of the uplands. At Curepipe (1,800 feet above sea level), a place much resorted to of late years and fast becoming a large town, the mean temperature resembles that of the South of France. Cyclones occur between 8° and 30° south latitude, and the hurricane season extends from December to the middle of April. One of the most severe of these occurred in March, 1868, when about 50,000

persons were left homeless, and a portion of the iron railway bridge across Grand River, weighing 220 tons, was uplifted by the wind and thrown to the bottom of the ravine. The longest days are at the December solstice, and the shortest at the June solstice. The time at Port Louis is 3 hours 49 minutes 58 seconds in advance of Greenwich time.

Mauritius is a Crown Colony, and the government, which was in 1884–5 altered in constitution, consists of a Governor, with an Executive Council of five officials, and a Legislative Council of twenty-seven members, eight of whom are ex-officio, nine nominated by the Governor, and ten elected, viz. two for Port Louis, and one for each of the eight rural districts. In the case of ten non-official members voting together on any question of finance or local matter the official vote is not counted. The capital and seat of Government is the city of Port Louis, which, with its suburbs, contains a population of nearly 66,000. Its harbour, which is one of the best in the East, possesses three graving docks. Among the public buildings of this city may be mentioned the Government House, the Roman Catholic and Protestant Cathedrals, the Town Hall, the Institute, the Royal College, &c. At Port Louis six daily newspapers are published, besides other periodicals. The total police force on 31st December, 1884, was 679. Justice is administered according to the French Civil Code. English is the language used in the courts of law, but in trade and generally throughout the island French is still the language most in use amongst the educated classes, whilst the lower speak a Creole "patois" based on French.

The annual trade of the island (including imports and exports), which passes almost entirely through Port Louis, is estimated at about six millions sterling, *i.e.* it is equal to the entire trade of England in the reign of Queen Anne. The Colony produces sugar, rum, vanilla and aloe fibre, but the staple industry of the island is the cultivation of the sugar-cane. The exports of sugar in 1879 amounted to 103,576 tons. The imports for consumption are rice and other grain, iron, wine, lead, cotton goods for the coolies who are employed on the sugar estates, and various articles for the general population. The Colony raises scarcely anything required for its own consumption, but exports the whole of its production. It imports rice in enormous quantities from India, breadstuffs from the Australian Colonies, and cotton manufactures, &c., from the United Kingdom; oxen are imported from Madagascar, and sheep from South Africa and Australia.

Since the 1st January, 1878, all accounts have been kept in rupees and cents of a rupee, which is the currency of the island; and all weights and measures in use in the Colony since 1st May, 1878, are in conformity with the metric system.

Customs dues are levied upon all goods, wares, and merchandise not specially exempted. The chief exemptions are horses, cattle, and all live stock, building material, fuel, machinery for sugar, provisions imported for the use of Her Majesty's land and sea forces, seeds for agricultural purposes, and all manures and disinfectants.

The only export duty is a small charge on sugar produced in the Colony.

The soil is generally red and stony and mountainous, but many parts of the interior and of the sea-board are flat and fertile. The whole of the

island is well watered and produces in plenty all the trees, fruits and herbs that grow in this part of the world. Groves of oranges, both sweet and sour, are common, as are also citrons; and pineapples grow spontaneously in great perfection; but, as already stated, the most important cultivation is the sugar-cane. Little grain is grown, but the crops of rice, maize and manioc are good.

In 1880 the Governor of the Colony reported that "Mauritius, though not larger than an average English county, has an annual public revenue exceeding £700,000; that is, equal to the public revenue of all England in the reign of Charles II.". The total revenue of the Colony for 1884 was 8,609,627 rupees; this included 2,702,488 rupees from Customs receipts; 2,413,266 rupees for licences and permits; 1,740,608 rupees under "railway traffic," and smaller amounts from harbour dues, stamps, taxes, &c. The expenditure for the same year was 6,294,234 rupees, the chief item of which was the cost of the Civil Establishment.

The main and branch roads of Mauritius are nearly all macadamised, and are kept in excellent condition under Government supervision.

There are 92 miles of railways in the Colony: they consist of two lines, viz., the North Line, which runs south-east between Port Louis, Flacq, and Grand River, a distance of 38 miles, with 14 bridges varying from 25 to 80 feet in span; and the Midland Line, from Port Louis to Mahebourg (35¼ miles), with branches to Savanne and Moka. The cost of these two lines was £21,876 per mile. At Curepipe the railway is 1,822 feet above sea level.

A four-weekly service is carried on by the mail steamers of the Messageries Maritimes, between New Caledonia and Marseilles, *via* Suez, touching at Mauritius, Réunion, and Seychelles. The passage to and from Marseilles generally takes 21 days. There is also a four-weekly mail service with Europe by the steamers of the Castle (Donald Currie) line *viâ* Natal and the Cape; and also frequent communication both by sailing and steam vessels with Australia, India, Natal, Madagascar, and other places. During the year 1884, 593 vessels, with a total tonnage of 378,763 tons, entered the harbour of Port Louis.

The capital, Port Louis, is defended by Fort Adelaide (the citadel) and Fort George; there are also large barracks and military stores. In former years Mauritius had a garrison of nearly 3,000 men, but it has now only a small force, about 400 strong, for its defence. The Colony pays £40 a year for each infantry soldier stationed there, and £70 for engineers, artillerymen, staff, &c., the total military contribution amounting to about £21,000 a year.

In 1767 the total population was estimated at about 19,000, while on the 31st December, 1884, the resident population was 370,766; of these 253,730 were Indians, the majority of whom were originally coolies imported for working the sugar estates. The larger proportion of the inhabitants, 108,000, are Roman Catholics, but both the Church of England and Roman Catholic places of worship are aided by the Government.

The Department of Public Instruction consists of two branches, the Royal College for higher education, and the Schools Department for primary education. The former is under the direction of a staff of professors, and the latter is under the control of a superintendent aided by two inspectors. The Government schools are supported entirely by the State; the grant

schools only partially so. These schools employ about 170 masters and mistresses.

In 1883 the numerical strength of each was as follows :—

57	Government Schools containing	7,152	pupils.
57	Grant-in-Aid ,, ,,	5,323	,,
114	Total . .	12,475	,,

Seventy-three per cent. of the pupils are Roman Catholics, 8 per cent. belong to the Church of England, 14 per cent. are Hindus, and 5 per cent. Mahommedans. The annual vote for educational purposes amounts to about 412,000 rupees.

Dependencies of Mauritius.

The dependencies of Mauritius, viz., the Seychelles Islands, Rodrigues, Diego Garcia, and about 70 other small islands scattered over the Indian Ocean, contain a population of about 16,000 inhabitants.

The Seychelles Islands, which are 940 miles from Mauritius, are situated between the parallels of south lat. 4° and 5°, the whole group of these islands comprising 50,120 acres. The largest island of this group is Mahé, which is 17 miles long and 4 miles broad. Its capital, Victoria, which has a good harbour, is in a valley in the north-east of the island. The Seychelles are under the superintendence of a Chief Civil Commissioner, who is assisted by a Board of Commissioners. The chief Commissioner is appointed by the Secretary of State, but is subordinate to the Governor of Mauritius, from whom he receives his instructions.

The principal exports from these islands are cocoanuts, cocoanut oil, Indian corn, cacao, and vacoa bags. The total value of these for 1884 was 392,175 rupees. In addition to the above, vanilla, coffee and nutmegs are grown and exported on a small scale. In these islands are found the noted *cocos-de-mer*, from the leaves of which the natives make very fine straw hats.

The value of imports for the year 1884 was 401,508 rupees; they consisted of manufactured cotton, flour, beans, wines, spirits, beer, tobacco, sugar, salt, and sundry other provisions for general consumption; and hardware.

The total receipts for the year 1884 amounted to 130,047 rupees, and the expenditure to 145,774 rupees.

The aggregate tonnage of the shipping (including mail steamers and war ships) that entered Port Victoria during 1884 was 125,751 tons.

The population in this dependency in 1881 was 14,081.

There are 20 primary schools in Seychelles, viz., 12 under the Roman Catholic Mission, and 8 under the Church of England; these are all supported by Government grants-in-aid, and are attended by 1,620 children. This dependency has no establishments for higher education.

Rodrigues, the next dependency to Seychelles in importance, is situated in 19° 41′ south latitude, and 63° 23′ east longitude, and is 300 miles from Mauritius. It is 18 miles long, 7 miles broad, and is surrounded by coral reefs which extend in some places 5 or 6 miles from the shore. The island is mountainous and in some parts well wooded, and the scenery extremely

beautiful and picturesque. The land rises in some places to a height of 1,760 feet above sea level, and may be seen in clear weather at a distance of 10 or 12 leagues.

Rodrigues is famous for two caverns in which are the most beautiful transparent stalactites. The principal one, which is in the south-west of the island, is entered by a mouth in the face of high perpendicular rocks covered with bushes and ferns, and overlooking a fine grove of citron, lemon, and orange trees. The smaller cavern is about two miles south of the larger one, and is entered by a small hole in the ground, down which a descent of about 8 or 10 feet is made to the floor of the cave. Each of these caverns has a well of good fresh water.

This island was of great service to the British troops when Bourbon and Mauritius were taken from the French. The English troops were then for a long time at the island; and after the attack on Bourbon the wounded were sent back there for recovery.

The climate of the island is very healthy, and the air bracing. The temperature is very similar to that of Mauritius, but the breezes are stronger and the hurricanes more frequent and severe.

Rodrigues is under the administration of a Civil Commissioner (who is also a police magistrate) who receives his instructions from the Governor of Mauritius. Laws for the island are made in the form of regulations framed by the Governor of Mauritius in Executive Council.

The chief industries are fishing and the rearing of cattle and goats, the pasturage being particularly good for the latter. Wild guinea fowls and partridges are plentiful, and there are also deer and wild pigs in the island. There is an abundance of fruit of all sorts, such as mangoes, bananas, guavas, avocas, pineapples, custard-apples, tamarinds and wild raspberries; while the oranges, limes and citrons are notoriously good. Vacoa and palmiste trees are found in all parts of the island. The soil is very good and well adapted for all agricultural pursuits; the growing of oats, wheat, sugar-cane, cotton, maize, rice, coffee, beans and vanilla has met with great success; while pumpkins, potatoes, sweet potatoes, yams and almost all vegetables grow with little trouble.

Several fortunes were made in the island by agricultural pursuits during the time of slavery, but this industry has of late years been much neglected, owing to the want of regular communication and a better supply of labour. Capitalists from Mauritius are, however, now giving their attention to the natural advantages of the island in this respect, and there is every reason to expect good results.

The chief exports at present are maize, beans, salt fish, cattle, goats, pigs, poultry, and fruit. The cattle trade might, however, be greatly improved if it were encouraged and regular communication established with the island.

The population of Rodrigues on the 3rd of April, 1881, was 1,436.

Diego Garcia, which is the chief of the Oil Islands group, is at 7° south lat. and between 72° and 73° east long. It consists of four islands, the principal one being about 30 miles in length; it is somewhat like a crescent in shape, and the three smaller islands are situated between its extremities. It has a large bay, 15 miles in length, and from 2 to 5 miles in breadth, with sufficient depth for large vessels to enter. As it lies between the entrance to the Red Sea and Cape Leeuwin, it is very

convenient for coaling purposes to steamers plying in that vicinity. Two companies have recently established large coal depôts on the island, which is now much frequented by steam vessels.

The island was placed under the jurisdiction of a magistrate in 1885, and supplied with a small body of police from Mauritius.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—The island of Mauritius lies in the Indian Ocean, between 57° 17′ and 57° 46′ east longitude, and 19° 58′ and 20° 32′ south latitude. It is some 115 miles to the north eastward of Bourbon (or Réunion, as it is now called), and 500 miles to the eastward of Madagascar. The extreme length of the island from north to south is 36 miles, its extreme breadth 28 miles, and it has an area of about 708 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Mauritius is of volcanic formation, and it is surrounded by reefs of coral, having here and there openings which afford access to its shores. Of these the principal are Port Louis, on the north-west coast; and Grand Port, on the south-east coast. The whole interior forms a series of high plains, encircled by chains of hills, which descend gradually to the seashore. These hills only attain a very moderate elevation, their average height being little, if at all, in excess of 2,000 feet, but they contain some sharp and precipitous peaks, often of fantastic shapes, of a considerably greater altitude. The principal of these are the Piton de la Rivière Noire, which has a height of 2,900 feet, and Pieter Both mountain and the Pouce, which are only slightly lower. From the hilly regions numerous streams descend to the coast, through valleys and ravines remarkable for delightful scenery. These streams, which, during their course, frequently form fine cascades, are in no case navigable for more than a few hundred yards from their mouths.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.—The island is divided into nine districts, called respectively Port Louis, Pamplemousses, Rivière du Rempart, Flacq, Grand Port, Savanne, Moka, Plaines Wilhems and Black River. The principal places of the island are Port Louis, the capital and the seat of Government, and Grand Port or Mahébourg, upon the south-east coast. Port Louis is a fortified city of some 66,000 inhabitants, with an excellent harbour, said to be one of the best in the east. It has three graving docks, large barracks and military stores, and is the great centre of commercial activity in the island.

DEPENDENCIES.—The Seychelles Islands, Rodrigues, Diego Garcia, and about 70 other islands, all in the Indian Ocean, are dependencies of Mauritius. The total population of these islands is about 16,000. The Seychelles Islands, which are situated between the 4th and 5th parallels of south latitude, about 940 miles due north of Mauritius, have a total area of 50,120 acres.

Rodrigues, the next most important dependency of Mauritius, is a mountainous island, some 18 miles long and 7 miles broad, in latitude 19° 41′ south, and longitude 63° 23′ east, surrounded by coral reefs, which extend in places some miles from the shore. It is well watered and possesses a fertile soil, especially adapted for all kinds of agricultural pursuits

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

SINGAPORE.

GOVERNOR,
SIR FREDERICK A. WELD, G.C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. A. F. DICKSON, C.M.G.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. J. WINFIELD BONSER.

TREASURER,
HON. ALLAN MACLEAN SKINNER.

AUDITOR-GENERAL,
HON. HENRY TROTTER.

COLONIAL ENGINEER,
HON. MAJOR H. E. McCALLUM, R.E.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. THEODORE T. FORD.

PUISNE JUDGE,
HON. W. A. M. SHERIFF.

PENANG.

RESIDENT COUNCILLOR,
HON. C. J. IRVING, C.M.G.

DEPUTY COLONIAL ENGINEER,
CAPT. M. A. CAMERON, R.E.

PUISNE JUDGE,
HON. T. LETTWOOD.

MALACCA.

RESIDENT COUNCILLOR,
HON. D. F. A. HERVEY.

PERAK.

BRITISH RESIDENT,
SIR HUGH LOW, K.C.M.G.

SELANGOR.

BRITISH RESIDENT,
F. A. SWETTENHAM.

SUNGAI UJONG.

BRITISH RESIDENT,
W. B. F. PAUL.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

THE Straits Settlements, as defined by Letters Patent under the Great Seal dated the 17th June, 1885, consist of the Island of Singapore, the Town and Province of Malacca, the Territory and Islands of the Dindings, the Island of Penang, Province Wellesley and their dependencies, with any territories that may at any time be added to or become dependencies upon the Colony.

The Cocos Islands have recently been added to the Colony. This group consists of about twenty islands and islets, lying about 700 miles to the south-west of Batavia and of North Keeling Island, which is about 12 miles to the northward.

On the 1st April, 1867, the Straits Settlements passed from the control of the Indian Government to that of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. This change was effected by an Order in Council issued under the authority of Act 29 & 30 Vict. c. 145.

Singapore is an island about 27 miles long by 14 wide, situated at the southern extremity of the Malayan peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow strait about three-quarters of a mile in width. There are a number of small islands adjacent to it which form part of the settlement.

The seat of government is the town of Singapore, at the southern point of the island, in lat. 1° 16′ north, and long. 103° 53′ east.

Penang is an island about 15 miles long and 9 broad, containing an area of 107 square miles, situated off the west coast of the Malayan Peninsula in 5° N. latitude, and at the northern extremity or entrance to the Straits of Malacca. On the opposite shore of the mainland, from which the island is separated by a strait from 2 to 10 miles broad, is Province Wellesley, a strip of territory forming part of the settlement, averaging 8 miles in width, and extending 45 miles along the coast.

The chief town is Georgetown, in 5° 24′ north lat. and 100° 21′ east long.

Malacca is situated on the western coast of the peninsula between Singapore and Penang, about 120 miles from the former and 240 from the latter, and consists of a strip of territory about 42 miles in length, and from 8 to 24½ miles in breadth. The principal town, called Malacca, is 2° 10 north lat. and 102° 14′ east long.

Malacca is one of the oldest European settlements in the East, having been taken possession of by the Portuguese under Albuquerque in 1511, and held by them till 1641, when the Dutch, after frequent attempts, were successful in driving out the Portuguese. The settlement remained under the Government of the Dutch till 1795, when it was taken possession of by the English, and held by them till 1818, at which date it was restored to

the Dutch, and finally fell into our hands in pursuance of the treaty with Holland the 17th March, 1824, in exchange for the East India Company's settlement at Bencoolen, on the west coast of Sumatra. By that treaty it was arranged that the Dutch should not again meddle with affairs or have any settlement on the Malayan Peninsula, the British Government agreeing at the same time to leave Sumatra to the Dutch.

When Malacca was taken possession of by the Portuguese in 1511, it was one of the grand *entrepôts* for the commerce of the East, but as the Portuguese pushed their operations further to the east, in the archipelago and neighbouring countries, the trade of Malacca gradually declined, and it ceased to be of consequence as a collecting centre, except for the trade of the Malayan Peninsula and the Island of Sumatra, which trade it retained, under Dutch rule, till the establishment of Penang in 1786, when in the course of a few years trade almost ceased, and it became, what it has ever since been, a place of no commercial importance, but possessing great undeveloped agricultural resources. Penang soon acquired a monopoly of the trade of the Malayan peninsula and Sumatra, and had a large traffic with China, Siam, Borneo, the Celebes, and other places in the archipelago not reduced to mercantile subjection by the Dutch; but no sooner was Singapore established than Penang in its turn declined in importance, as the greater part of the extensive Eastern trade centred at Singapore, and Penang came to depend chiefly on the local trade, which has largely increased in consequence of the opening out of the extensive tin-mines in Laroot, Kallang, Salengore, Junk Ceylon, the Settlement of Deli, on the coast of Sumatra, &c.

Penang, or Prince of Wales Island, as it is officially called, was the first British settlement on the Malayan Peninsula, having been ceded to the English by the Rajah of Kedah in 1785, with the proviso that the sum of 10,000 dols. be annually paid to the Rajah of Kedah as long as the British occupy the island. In 1798, in consequence of the prevalence of piracy on the shores of the mainland opposite Penang, a strip of the coast of the mainland was acquired from the Rajah, now called Province Wellesley. It extends from the Muda River to the Krean River, a distance of 35 miles, containing in all 234 square miles. This province is in a high state of cultivation, when compared with the neighbouring territories. The census of 1881 gives a population of 97,294, who are almost entirely engaged in agriculture, the chief articles cultivated being sugar, paddy, and cocoa-nuts. In 1806 Penang was made a separate Presidency under the East India Company, of equal rank with Madras and Bombay. In 1826 Singapore and Malacca were incorporated with it under one Government, Penang still remaining the seat of Government. In 1832 the seat of Government was transferred to Singapore.

Singapore was taken possession of by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819, by virtue of a treaty with the Malayan princes. It was at first subordinate to Bencoolen in Sumatra, but in 1823 it was placed under the Government of Bengal; it was afterwards, as above stated, incorporated with Penang and Malacca, and placed under the Governor and Council of the Incorporated Settlement.

The climate of the Straits Settlements is almost uniform throughout the year, the trees being always covered with leaves. The maximum mean monthly temperature at 9 A.M. during 1884 was in Singapore 84·4, and in

Penang 84·9. The corresponding minimum was in Singapore 79·1, and in Penang 79·9. The rainfall for the year amounted in Singapore to 82·51 inches, and in Penang to 87·56 inches on the plain, and to 115·95 inches on the hill. The barometrical variation during the year is very small, the highest rendering at Singapore during the year 1884 being 30·029, and the lowest 29·892.

The Constitution is that of a Crown Colony. The Government is administered by a Governor appointed by the Crown for a period of six years, assisted by an Executive and a Legislative Council. The present Governor is His Excellency Sir Frederick Aloysius Weld, G.C.M.G. The Constitution of the Colony provides that in the event of the death, absence, or incapacity of the Governor, the Senior Civil Member of the Executive Council, usually the Colonial Secretary, shall carry on the administration of the Government.

Penang (in which is included Province Wellesley) and Malacca are in charge of officers styled Resident Councillors.

The Law of the Colony is so much of the Common and Statute Law of England as it existed in 1826, modified by Indian Acts passed prior to 1867, and since that year by local Ordinances. There is a Supreme Court, composed of a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges, which has similar powers to that of the High Court of Justice in England, with the exception of such of the powers exercised by the Probate Division of that Court as relate to Admiralty and matrimonial matters. The Supreme Court also acts as a Court of Appeal from the decision of its individual members; when so acting it is constituted with not less than three judges. From the Court of Appeal there is a final appeal to the Privy Council in all cases where the value of the property in dispute exceeds $1,500, or £250. There is a Vice-Admiralty Court in Singapore and Penang, presided over by the Chief Justice or one of the Judges of the Supreme Court. There is in each settlement a Court of Requests, presided over by Commissioners, generally Police Magistrates, which takes cognizance of almost all civil actions in which the amount in dispute does not exceed $50.

There are also Magistrates' Courts with powers analogous to those exercised by a stipendiary magistrate in England. The functions of barrister and solicitor are exercised by the same individual, who is styled an Advocate and Attorney of the Supreme Court.

The sources from which the revenue is derived are few in number, consisting chiefly of a stamp duty, of the monopolies of preparing and retailing opium for smoking, and of the sale of spirits and other excisable commodities, which are farmed out to private individuals under restrictions as to the maximum prices to be charged. The land revenue comprises the proceeds of the sale of public lands, quit-rents, and rents paid in kind or commuted with transfer fees. The remaining heads consist of judicial fines and fees, the post-office, light and harbour dues, and a few miscellaneous items. There are no custom duties, all the ports of the Colony being free. The total revenue of the Colony amounted in 1884—the last year for which the returns have been made up—to 3,515,841 dollars. Assuming for purposes of calculation and comparison with former years the dollar as the equivalent of four shillings English money, the rate formerly taken, the revenue in 1884 reached £701,165 as against £352,544 in 1876, and £276,642 in 1868, the year subsequent to the transfer.

These figures show more clearly than many words the remarkable progress the Colony has made within recent years, especially when it is borne in mind that taxation has been rather lowered than increased.

The expenditure for 1884 amounted to 3,238,030 dollars, or £647,606; compared with £254,391 in 1868, and £328,130 in 1876.

The currency of the Straits Settlements consists of dollars and cents, the latter being legal tender only for sums not exceeding two dollars. The present value of the dollar is three shillings and fourpence. The dollar consists of one hundred cents. The Banks of the Straits Settlements are four in number, and with one exception, that of the New Oriental Bank Corporation, enjoy the privilege, under their charter of incorporation or by ordinance, of issuing notes for sums not less than five dollars, on condition of keeping a reserve in specie of one-third of their liabilities on the issue.

The Straits ports, as before remarked, are wholly free from duties on imports or exports, nor are tonnage dues levied for general purposes; the only tax to which shipping is liable being the very moderate one of three cents, or three-halfpence, per ton register in support of the lighthouses. The chief exports comprise tin, sugar, pepper, nutmegs, mace, sago, tapioca, buffalo hides and horns, rattans, gutta, india-rubber, gambier, gum, coffee, dye-stuffs, tobacco, &c.

The growth of the trade will be observed by a comparison of the following table, showing the united exports and imports for the periods mentioned:—

	1859-60.	1876.	1884.
	£	£	£
Singapore	10,371,300	18,292,180	24,122,725
Penang	3,530,000	6,895,923	11,224,433
Malacca	920,000	949,371	865,669
Total . .	14,821,300	26,137,474	36,212,827

The number of vessels that were entered in Straits ports during the year 1884, exclusive of native craft, were in Singapore 2,951, with a tonnage of 2,288,118, and crews numbering 116,237; in Penang 2,040, with a tonnage of 1,164,982, and crews numbering 85,391; in Malacca 857, with a tonnage of 181,074, and crews numbering 28,112. The total native craft which were entered at all three ports during the year amounted to 9,417, with a tonnage of 266,594 tons, and employing 70,732 men.

The population of the Colony, which in 1838 amounted to 150,000, in 1866 to 273,000, and in 1871 to 307,951, had risen in 1881, when the last census was taken, to 423,384. The bulk of the population consists of Malays and Chinese in almost equal numbers, the Malays numbering 174,326, and the Chinese 174,327; the remainder being composed of Europeans and Americans with their descendants, natives of India, Arabs, Javanese, Bugis, and other Eastern races.

The garrison of the Colony consists of one battalion of infantry and two batteries of artillery. Two companies of infantry are ordinarily stationed at Penang. The Colony pays to the Imperial Government an

annual contribution of $235,976 or £39,329 towards the cost of the garrison, besides defraying the up keep of the barracks and all other military buildings.

Fortifications are now being erected for the defence of the coaling station and docks at Singapore at a considerable outlay.

GEOGRAPHY.

The Straits Settlements, which embrace the three distinct territories of Penang, Malacca and Singapore, form a Crown Colony quite distinct from the Government of India.

PENANG is an island about 15 miles long and 9 miles broad, with an area of 107 square miles, off the west coast of the Malayan peninsula, at the northern entrance to the Straits of Malacca. A range of hills runs through its centre, but the western and southern parts of the island are tolerably level. It possesses a healthy climate and a fertile soil. Georgetown, the capital, has a good harbour.

Upon the coast of the Malay peninsula, opposite to Penang and dependent upon it, is a small district known as Province Wellesley, which consists of a strip of territory averaging 8 miles in width and extending 45 miles along the coast. This province, which includes 10 miles of recently acquired territory to the south of the Krean River, has a total area of 270 square miles. The breadth of the channel between Province Wellesley and the island of Penang does not exceed two miles.

Some 80 miles to the southward of Penang is a newly acquired settlement known as the DINDINGS, which consists of the island of Pankor and a strip of territory on the adjoining mainland.

MALACCA, which is situated on the western shore of the Malay peninsula, about 110 miles to the north-west of Singapore, consists of a strip of territory about 42 miles in length and from 8 to 25 miles in breadth, with the town of the same name. The coast of this territory is rocky and barren, but the interior of the country, though mountainous, contains some fertile valleys. Malacca is one of the principal British stations in this part of Asia, and is important from the fact that by its position it commands the navigation of the Malacca Strait. The area of the territory is 659 square miles.

SINGAPORE is an island at the southern extremity of the Malay peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow strait some three-quarters of a mile in width. It is about 27 miles long by 14 wide, and has an area of 206 square miles. There are a number of small islands contiguous to Singapore, which form part of the Settlement. The town of Singapore, in the south of the island, is the chief place in the Colony and the seat of Government. It possesses a commodious harbour and is a great centre of trade in this part of the world.

PERAK AND OTHER PROTECTED STATES.

Intimately connected with the Colony are the three protected Native States of Perak, Selangor, and Sungai Ujong, situated on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. These states are under the supervision of the Governor of the Colony, they each possess a State Council, and in each there is a British Resident, appointed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and acting directly under the orders of the Governor. Of the three Perak is the most important, both in extent and wealth.

PERAK is situated between the parallels of 3° 45′ and 5° 29′ N., and 100° 22½′ to 101° 40′ E., and is estimated to contain 7,949 square miles of territory. There was but little political connection between Perak and the Straits Settlements until the year 1874, when, owing to the effect produced upon British trade by the internal dissensions in the State, and the piracy on its coasts, the then Governor of the Colony, Sir Andrew Clarke, R.E., G.C.M.G., found it necessary to intervene. A treaty was concluded between the Governor and the native authorities at Panker on the 20th January, 1874, under which, at the request of the Sultan, a British Resident and Assistant Resident were appointed to advise and aid in maintaining order in the State.

Mr. J. W. Birch, the first British Resident, was murdered by the Malays in November of the following year, and the force sent to restore order was found insufficient for the purpose. Troops were obtained from India and China, and the disorder was speedily suppressed. All the persons implicated in the murder of Mr. Birch were eventually secured, and either executed, imprisoned, or deported to the Seychelles, among the latter being the Sultan Abdullah.

Since April, 1876, there has been no disturbance of any kind, and the peaceful progress of the country has been very rapid. The revenue has risen from £64,728 in 1877, to £238,749 in 1884. Police-stations, barracks, gaols, hospitals, markets, new court-houses, treasury, and other Government buildings have been erected; a railway, eight miles in length, from Port Weld to Raipeng, many miles of roads and telegraphs have been constructed, all debts (about £150,000 in amount) have been liquidated, and the State has now a balance of assets over liabilities of £100,000.

The revenue is derived from the same sources as in the Colony, with the addition of a duty on tin, which is the principal export of the country.

No census has been taken, but the population may be stated approximately at 118,000 persons, of whom 60,000 are Chinese and 55,000 Malays.

The agriculture of the State is as yet but little developed, the suitability of the soil to the cultivation of tapioca, pepper, rice, sugar, and other tropical produce, has, however, been demonstrated, while success has attended the cultivation of coffee and tea in the Government experimental gardens.

The business of the State is carried on by a number of Malay and European officers acting under the direction of the British Resident. The

maintenance of order is provided for by a Military Police, officered by English officers of the Regular Army. The force is fully armed and equipped. The State is in communication, *viâ* Penang, with the Eastern Telegraph Company's cables.

The State of SELANGOR is separated from Perak by the Bemani river, to the south of which it lies, and occupies an area of about 3000 square miles. From 1867 to 1874 Selangor suffered from a civil war. In the latter year the Sultan requested the aid of the Governor of the Straits Settlements, who appointed Mr. J. G. Davidson Resident, and Mr. F. A. Swettenham, the present Resident, Assistant Resident, to aid and advise His Highness in the government of the country. Since that year order has been maintained, and the State is making rapid progress. The population amounts to 46,568 persons, of whom 17,000 are Malays and 28,000 Chinese.

The mining is the principal industry of the State, its agriculture having been much neglected, though the soil is, like that of Perak, well adapted for most kinds of tropical produce. Liberal land regulations have been adopted with a view to the encouragement of planters, and in various parts of the State small plantations of coffee, cacao, and pepper have been opened and are doing well.

The principal town in the State, and the centre of the tin industry, is Kwala Zurnpor, situate 22 miles from the coast, with which it is being connected by a railway to be opened for traffic in July, 1886.

The revenue of the State, which was £32,246 in 1876, had increased in 1883 to £75,110. The police force consists of 305 men, chiefly Malays, under a superintendent and two European inspectors.

SUNGAI UJONG, the smallest of the three protected States, has an area of about 660 square miles, and is situate to the south of Selangor, and north west of Malacca. As in the case of Perak and Selangor, the intervention of the Straits Settlements Government was called for by the quarrels between Sungai Ujong and the neighbouring State of Nembow, which led in 1874 to the stoppage of the navigation of the river Zingi, then the only highway between Sungai Ujong and the sea.

A British Resident was appointed to the State in 1874, and, with the exception of an invasion by the inhabitants of some of the neighbouring States in 1875, which led to the temporary occupation of those countries, its peace has since been assured.

The population is small, consisting only of about 14,000 persons, of whom 10,000 are Chinese, the rest being Malays and natives of India. Arabian coffee and chinchona have been planted with success on the hills, and tapioca, Liberian coffee, cacao, and pepper are being successfully cultivated on the lowlands.

The resources of the revenue, which amounted in 1884 to £20,196, are the same as in Perak and Selangor.

The aid of the Government of the Colony is often sought by the other more independent States of the Peninsula, and this has been especially the case with the small States known as the "Negri Sembilau"* bordering upon Malacca.

These States, formerly at constant war with one another, under the

* Negri Sembilau, or Nine States. They are now seven in number, and consist of Sri Menanti, Numbow, Johole, Jellye, Muar, Jempol, and Segamet.

policy pursued by Sir Frederick Weld, G.C.M.G., enjoy peace and order, and have agreed that all differences shall be referred to the Governor of the Colony for decision.

The Legislative Council of the Colony has voted considerable sums in their aid, which have been expended on the construction of bridle-paths and roads, and it is believed that with the means of intercommunication now being afforded them, and the good order which has been established among them, these small States will speedily develop.

LABUAN.

LABUAN, the smallest of the British colonies, is an island of the Malayan Archipelago, situated about 6 miles off the north-west coast of Borneo, in lat. 5° 16′ N. and 115° 15′ E. long, and is about 30 miles from Brunei, the capital of Borneo proper. It has a fine harbour, and possesses extensive coal deposits, which were expected, at the time of the acquisition of the Colony, to have been a source of great success. A company was formed in England to develop the coal trade of the island, and it was called "The Eastern Archipelago Company." The undertaking however failed, as have also several similar companies which have since been started for the same purpose.

The island was ceded to Great Britain by the Sultan of Borneo in 1847, at which time it was uninhabited: a British settlement was established in 1848, and the late Sir James Brooke, K.C.B., was appointed as its first Governor.

At one time the island was very unhealthy, but now the jungle has been cleared it has greatly improved.

The government of the Colony is administered by a Governor, assisted by a nominated Legislative Council.

Labuan is a market for much of the produce of the neighbouring coasts of Borneo, and the Sulu Archipelago. This produce consists of edible birds'-nests, bees-wax, camphor, gutta-percha, india-rubber, pearls, trepang, and tortoise-shells, which are forwarded by the Labuan traders to Singapore. These traders are chiefly Chinese: they describe themselves as general dealers.

The island has three sago manufactories, where the raw material is converted into sago flour and exported in some quantities for the Singapore market.

With regard to the coal trade of the island, which has been already referred to, the following figures show the quantity of clean coal output from the year 1873 to 1882 :—

	Tons.		Tons.
1873 . . .	5,423	1878 . . .	3,717
1874 . . .	5,288	1879 . . .	2,245
1875 . . .	4,878	1880 . . .	528
1876 . . .	5,824	1881 . . .	800
1877 . . .	3,741	1882 . . .	550

It will thus be seen that during the last few years the coal trade has greatly fallen off, and is now comparatively unimportant.

The total value of exports for the year 1884 was £85,740 12*s.* 6*d.*; they consisted of gutta, sago (flour), rattans, and coal.

The imports for the same year consisted of attaps, gunny bags, cloth paddy, rice, raw sago, and salt; the value of which was £84,868 15*s.*

Only about 1,000 acres of the island are in crop, but cattle are reared with some success. In 1884 the colony was estimated to possess 2,500 cattle, 140 buffaloes, 10 sheep, 400 goats, and 20 ponies.

The revenue for the year 1884 was £4,780 10*s.* 8*d.*, and the expenditure £4,391 13*s.* 1*d.* Grants were originally made from the Imperial exchequer to assist in defraying the expenditure of the Colony, but since 1869 it has been self supporting.

Three steamers visit Labuan: one runs between Singapore, Labuan and Brunei; and another between Singapore, Labuan, and Sandakan (on the east coast of Borneo), and the island of Sulu. There is also a little vessel which makes Labuan her head-quarters, and runs up to Borneo, Sulu, and the Celebes.

The Colony has no troops for its defence, the military garrison which was maintained by the Imperial Government having been withdrawn in 1871, but the native police (about 50 in number) are armed with Snider rifles.

In 1884, the island had a population of 19 Europeans, and about 6,000 natives, viz., Kandyans, Malays, Borneans, Klings, and Bengalees. The Malays constitute the most indolent part of the population.

The Colony has three small schools in which instruction is given in reading, Malay and English, and in arithmetic.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—Labuan is a small island off the north-west coast of Borneo, at 5° 16′ north latitude, and 115° 15′ east longitude. I lies at the north of the Borneo river, about 6 miles from the mainland and about 30 miles to the northward of Brunei, the chief place in the Island of Borneo. Its greatest length in the direction of north-east and south-west is between eleven and twelve miles, and its greatest breadth about six miles. The total area of the island is about 31 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The northern part of the island is hilly, and contains valuable coal deposits, which, however, have not to any great extent been developed. The remainder is upon the whole flat, well-watered, and covered with wood. In the south-east is an inlet named Victoria Harbour, which affords good anchorage. On its shores are the residences of the Government officials, with barracks, &c., forming the nucleus of a future town. Labuan is under the control of a Governor appointed by the British Crown.

HONG KONG.

HONG KONG.

GOVERNOR,
SIR GEORGE FERGUSON BOWEN, G.C.M.G.

COMMANDER OF FORCES,
MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM GORDON CAMERON, C.B.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. SIR GEO. PHILLIPPO.

PUISNE JUDGE,
HON. JAMES RUSSELL.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
HON. WM. H. MARSH, C.M.G.

TREASURER,
HON. ALFRED LISTER.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL,
HON. E. L. O'MALLEY.

SURVEYOR-GENERAL,
HON. JOHN M. PRICE.

REGISTRAR-GENERAL,
HON. FREDERICK STEWART.

REGISTRAR OF SUPREME COURT,
E. J. ACKROYD.

HONG KONG.

It is not without appropriateness that Hong Kong has been styled the Gibraltar of the East. It is true that Hong Kong is an island and that Gibraltar is a part of the mainland of Spain, and that Gibraltar is a fortress and nothing more, while Hong Kong is a commercial settlement and is practically undefended, but in certain broad features they are closely akin, and especially in their respective importance to the British Empire in their geographical and political aspect. For just as Gibraltar dominates the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea, and opens the strategical gate from the west to our dominions in India, so does Hong Kong commercially dominate the entrance to the China Seas, and strategically close the road to India from the far East. Like Gibraltar, it lies in immediate contiguity to the mainland of an alien power, it has the same physical aspects—a rocky height rising abruptly from the sea with the town at the foot of its slopes; and, like Gibraltar, it is almost entirely unproductive, and is dependent on outside sources for the whole of its supplies. The exigencies moreover of self-preservation are rapidly tending to convert the hitherto undefended rock into a fortress of first-class rank, and in a few years time it is probable that even in the respect of fortifications it will present another point of accord with the far-famed fortress of Gibraltar, and the similarity which now so constantly strikes those who have visited the one and the other will be yet more vividly impressed upon the mind.

While, however, the adaptability of these two small colonies for their respective purposes is so similar in kind, the ends for which they are held are widely different, those which actuate the tenure of Gibraltar being strictly military, and those in the case of Hong Kong being solely commercial.

The preliminary cession of Hong Kong was effected in 1841 by Captain Charles Elliot, H.M. Plenipotentiary acting with the Chinese Commissioner Ki Shin. In the proclamation announcing the cession, Captain Elliot said—"The Plenipotentiary seizes the earliest occasion to declare that Her Majesty's Government has sought for no privilege in China exclusively for the advantage of British ships and merchants, and he is only performing his duties in offering the protection of the British flag to the subjects, citizens, and ships of Foreign Powers that may resort to Her Majesty's possession.

"Pending Her Majesty's further pleasure, there will be no port or other charges to the British Government."

* * * * *

"The oblivion of past and redressed injuries will follow naturally from the right feeling of the Queen's subjects: indeed it should be remembered

that no extent of modification resulting only from political intervention can be efficacious in the steady improvement of our condition, unless it be systematically seconded by conciliatory treatment of the people and a becoming deference for the Institutions and Government of the country upon the threshold of which we are about to be established."

* * * * *

"Chinese ships and merchants resorting to the port of Hong Kong for purposes of trade are hereby exempted in the name of the Queen of England from charge or duty of any kind to the British Government."

A few months later a further proclamation, dated 7th June, 1841, was issued by Captain Elliot, declaring "to the merchants and traders of Canton and all parts of the empire, that they and their ships have free permission to resort to and trade at the port of Hong Kong, being on the shores of the Chinese Empire, neither will there be any charges on imports and exports to the British Government."

Concurrently with these proclamations a third one was issued on the 1st Feb., 1841, in the joint names of Sir Gordon Bremer, Commander-in-Chief, and Captain Elliot, in announcing the cession to the Chinese inhabitants of Hong Kong, added, "The inhabitants are hereby promised protection in Her Majesty's gracious name against all enemies whatever, and they are further secured in the free exercise of their religious rites, ceremonies, and social customs, and in the enjoyment of their lawful private property and interests."

The cession was confirmed by the Treaty of Nankeen, signed the 29th Aug. 1842; and on the 5th April, 1843, a Royal Charter was conferred upon the island, constituting it and its dependencies a separate colony, under the name of the "Colony of Hong Kong." Its limits are defined as "the island of Hong Kong and its dependencies, situate between twenty-two degrees nine minutes and twenty-two degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and the one hundred and fourteenth degree six minutes and the one hundred and fourteenth degree eighteen minutes east longitude from the Meridian of Greenwich."

By the Treaty of Tientsin, in 1860, a further strip of land on the north side of the harbour of Hong Kong and on the mainland, consisting of about three square miles and known as the Kowloon Peninsula, was ceded to Great Britain and formed into a component part of the Colony of Hong Kong.

The annexation of Hong Kong affords a remarkable example of the aptitude of the British race for grasping the requirements of any given condition of circumstances and meeting them accordingly. Nothing could be more uninviting than the island of Hong Kong considered by itself. Cheerless and unproductive, its growth to prosperity has been in spite of great physical obstacles, and at the cost of large expenditure. Every road made and every house built has had to be constructed on artificial foundations and at extra expense, owing to the absence of level ground, and every article of food and all the necessaries of life have had to be procured from outside. Nevertheless, to the statesman's eye, the situation of Hong Kong appeared to exactly fall in with what the exigencies of the case required, and the British Government did not hesitate to select it. Experience had tended to show that what was required for the peaceful development of commerce with China was some place where foreign merchants or native

traders could temporarily lodge their goods under the full protection of a flag strong enough to be respected, while they looked about for a profitable market. Such a place should possess a good harbour, it should occupy a commanding situation, and should be politically as well as commercially important. All these requirements Hong Kong satisfied naturally. Its disadvantages as a non-productive island were minimised by its close proximity to the great producing country of China, and all that was further required was to gain the confidence of the Chinese people and to divert trade from the channels it had previously chosen to itself. The broad and liberal lines of policy laid down for the political basis of the colony seemed admirably adapted for the purpose, and the very highest anticipations were formed regarding the future of the island.

Nevertheless, the first few years of the Colony were not encouraging. After a fitful outburst of prosperity the prospect darkened. The Chinese did not flock to the place as had been expected. Merchants did not leave Canton, and on the 6th April, 1846, the following gloomy announcement appeared in the City Article of the *Times*:—"Hong Kong has quite lost caste as a place for mercantile operations. Many of the merchants have already abandoned the island. Since the beginning of the present year, two firms have given up their establishment, two more of old standing have expressed their determination to quit the Colony, and two others are hesitating about following their example, or at most of leaving a clerk in possession to forward goods or letters."

The manifest destiny of the Colony, however, so long as the broad principles of liberty and commercial freedom laid down at the outset were maintained, was too pronounced to be destroyed by mere details of administration, and though in the desire to make the Colony a profitable acquisition dangerous tactics had been employed for the purpose of raising a revenue, the freedom of the port to all imports and exports whatsoever was never interfered with, and acted as a powerful incentive to the ultimate progressive improvement of the Colony. Towards the end, too, of 1849, in consequence of the opening of gold mines in Australia and California, a stream of emigration set in towards those places, of which Hong Kong became the centre. Ships were fitted out and supplies obtained, and the indirect results of a busy traffic with its numerous ramifications were exemplified in a rapid growth of population and extending industries. Some of the more harassing of the defects that had tainted British administration, such as a too indiscriminate dispensation of the criminal law, abuses connected with the opium farm, and an obnoxious system of junk and passenger registration, all of which had largely interfered with the growth of a respectable Chinese population, were gradually removed. The tenure of land, which had at first been fixed at seventy-five years, was extended to nine hundred and ninety-nine years; and in a review of the existing state of the Colony in 1851, Sir George Bonham, the then Governor, was able to report that the state of the Colony was satisfactory, that the native population was on the increase, and that the Chinese inhabitants were becoming more accustomed to British institutions.

The tide having once turned, the growth of the place was very rapid. In 1848 the population had stood at 23,998. In 1855 it stood at 72,607. A corresponding development of the revenue also took place, and in 1855 the Colony for the first time became self-supporting, its early Parliamentary

grants having been £60,000. Various extensive public works were set on foot, especially a reclamation of land all along the northern frontage of the harbour and the building of a substantial sea wall, thus affording an excellent basis for the establishment of warehouses and other places of business. A yet further impetus was given to the prosperity of the Colony by the disturbed state of affairs in 1854 in Canton, culminating in the destruction of the foreign factories at Canton in 1856, the result of which was to remove the control of the foreign trade of that port to Hong Kong, thereby securing to it the direction of the postal, banking and exchange operations of the whole trade with China. The hostilities which the constant friction between the Chinese Government and the British Government at length brought about in 1857, and in which the celebrated *Arrow* affair was the immediately determining catastrophe, were ended in 1860 by the Treaty of Tientsin. By this treaty the intercourse between foreign nations and China was established on the footing on which, with slight modifications, it has ever since remained. It was negotiated by Lord Elgin, and amongst other things for the first time legalized the importation of opium into China. It provided for the establishment of foreign Consulates at the Treaty Ports, and for the reciprocal appointment of ambassadors or accredited ministers at the respective capitals; and various other points were also enacted, all having for their object the establishment of a permanent workable footing on which to develop a friendly commercial intercourse with China. In addition to the indirect benefits which the probable extension of trade with China would bring to Hong Kong, her position was specially strengthened in this treaty by the cession of Kowloon Peninsula, which, though only a small spot of three or four square miles in area, is important as forming the northern boundary of the Hong Kong harbour. With the settlement of political difficulties and the development of trade the Colony of Hong Kong continued to progress. By the abolition, too, of the joint offices of Superintendent of Trade in China and Governor of Hong Kong—which had hitherto been vested in an individual, an arrangement which had never worked well and was prejudicial to the interests of the Colony—the Governor was now able to devote his whole time to the development of the resources of the Colony. One of the earliest experiments made was to establish a Mint in Hong Kong, which it was thought would in time prove a source of revenue to the Colony and greatly increase its political importance throughout China. It was opened in 1866, only to be closed again in 1868. It was considered that, even if it eventually proved remunerative, the Colony was not in a position to bear the initial losses at which it was found to work, and grave doubts were entertained as to whether it could even ever pay, in view of the Chinese appreciation of silver as silver only and not as a coin. Whatever may have been the ultimate issue of the experiment, however, it was peremptorily abandoned, the plant was sold to the Government of Japan, and the building now forms the site of an extensive sugar manufactory. With the abandonment of the scheme the attention of the Government began to be devoted more exclusively to systematising and adjusting the conditions that were to determine the residence of people in the island. Special measures were taken for the extirpation of piracy that harassed the neighbouring waters of the Colony. Every junk coming to the harbour had to declare itself and obtain a port

clearance before leaving; all boats trading in the Colony had to be registered and numbered; a similar system of registration for householders, landlords and tenants was adopted on shore. The evils arising from the uncontrolled existence of social vices were brought under the control of the Government, measures for getting rid of abandoned criminals by a carefully devised system of banishment were introduced, and numerous other enactments of a far-reaching and comprehensive scope were introduced under the able administration of those days. An attempt was also made to deal with the vice of public gambling, which amongst the Chinese attains enormous proportions, and which is a direct provocative of crime, and in those days was a fertile source of corruption in the Police Force. A system of farming out the privilege of opening public gambling houses to the exclusion of all others was introduced, which it was hoped would enable the Government to regulate the evil with which it could not adequately cope. The revenue necessarily derivable from this source was made into a special fund kept distinct from the ordinary revenue and not applicable to the current expenditure. It was, however, a system that could not last. It was an admission of inability on the part of the Government to keep proper order in the Colony, and it was extremely doubtful whether, as a measure, it was efficacious. It was suppressed by the voice of public opinion in 1872; a part of the fund which it had created was used in erecting an eleemosynary Chinese hospital, known as the Tung Wa Hospital, and the remainder of the fund was put apart as a special deposit to be appropriated exclusively for the good of the Chinese population.

At the same time that the Government was laying the foundations for the permanent settlement of the Chinese population on a proper footing, during the period from 1865 to 1872, the foreign communities assisted in developing the resources of the Colony by the formation of several public companies. The Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Honk Kong and Whampoa Dock Company, the Hong Kong and Macao River Steamboat Company, various local Insurance offices, and other undertakings of a similar nature were all set on foot between the years 1865 and 1872. Their growth has been very great, though not always continuous. The Hong Kong and Shanghai Bank, which was very unfortunate in its early days, has latterly advanced with astonishing speed. Its reserve fund in 1876 was $100,000, it now stands at $4,500,000 reserve, and $500,000 for equalization of dividends—its assets, which were then $34,634,364, are now $104,798,836; its Marine Insurance account, which stood at $50,006, stands at $233,917; its notes in circulation, which were $1,881,906, are now $4,662,736; and its deposits, which were $11,526,203, at the present moment are $65,615,078. It is impossible to over-estimate the immense importance of this flourishing institution to Chinese commerce at large, and to the local development of Hong Kong in particular.

Other undertakings have also prospered in a similar if less degree, the large number of public companies that now prosper in the Colony indicating the growth of the permanent interests of the place. In 1873 the attention of the Government was drawn to the grave abuses connected with the emigration of China to America from the neighbouring part of Macao. The grossest cruelties had been practised, kidnapping and crimping extensively prevailed, and the horrors attendant on the collecting of these herds of coolies were not unfrequently followed

up by retaliatory measures on the part of the coolies on the high seas. Though not directly concerned in the traffic, Hong Kong had nevertheless been interested in the fitting out of the emigrant ships and in supplying them with stores, and it was felt that legislation was necessary to put a stop once and for all to the risk of the British Flag being discredited with participation in what was nothing more than an aggravated form of slavery. Temporary acts were passed to at once meet the evil, and finally in 1875 a consolidated Chinese Emigration Act was passed, which permanently determined the footing on which emigration from the Colony was to be allowed. It established a Government inspection of intending emigrant ships, laid down minute directions with regard to the fittings of ships and the number of coolies to be allowed, and arranged for a Government examination of all coolies proposing to emigrate with a view to ascertaining their wishes in the matter. Emigration by contract was disallowed, and the engaging of coolies was forbidden to all save licensed brokers, who became responsible to the Government in a heavy bond for the non-abuse of their powers. Since the passing of this Act emigration has been conducted methodically and without abuse, and the outrages at sea that were the scandal of their time are already regarded as a matter of history. The closing of America to Chinese emigration, and the limitations placed upon it in Australia, have greatly reduced the number of Chinese emigrating, and they are now principally confined to the Straits Settlements and Native States. A similar difficulty in connection with emigration, which it is to be feared has not been yet successfully overcome, has attended the emigration of women. As has been pointed out, the Chinese when they emigrate leave their wives and women behind, and the consequence is the growth in the new settlements of a promiscuous assortment of females attached to no man in particular, and leading lives of inexpressible disgust to any not voluntarily undergoing them. Such women are theoretically voluntary emigrants, but it is possible that in many cases the expression of willingness is the confession of fear to say otherwise, and the difficulty in dealing with them is the impossibility of distinguishing between the *bona fides* and the *mala fides* of their assertions. In every case they are most carefully questioned by the Government, the life they may possibly have to lead is explained to them, and their absolute freedom on British soil enlarged upon; the almost unanimous answer is that they fully understand, but that nevertheless they wish to emigrate, and the British officer has reluctantly to yield to their persistent asseverations of what he fears to be false.

By the opening of the Suez Canal in 1870 an enormous impetus was given to the steamer traffic and to European trade with China. The political importance of Hong Kong became greatly extended and its advantages as a coaling station increasingly apparent. At the present time it stands fourth in the whole world for the amount of shipping that passes through its waters, the tonnage of vessels entered in 1884 being five million four hundred thousand tons. It has, on the other hand, become more sensitive to passing events in Europe, its existence is more precarious than heretofore, and its prosperity may at any time be paralysed by political disturbances in Europe. The dangerous complications between England and Russia in 1878 and in 1884, and the delicate situation created by the hostilities between France and China in 1883, emphasized the extreme importance of the Colony to Great Britain, and the dangers to

which it is exposed. Strenuous efforts are now being made to rectify its existing shortcomings, and before very long it is hoped that the Colony will be strengthened in such a way as to minimize the possibility of a *coup de main*, and prevent the recurrence of the unsettling and injurious panics which the political complications of Great Britain with other Powers are apt to occasion.

The machinery of government is carried on by a Governor and Executive Council, the Council consisting of the officer for the time being in command of the troops, the Colonial Secretary and Attorney-General, and such other officers as may be from time appointed, with the Governor as President. Its meetings are private, and while the Governor in all important matters is bound to consult his Council, he is not bound to follow their advice. For acts of the Government requiring legislation there is also a Legislative Council, consisting of the Governor as Chairman, the Chief Justice, Colonial Secretary, Attorney-General, and such other persons holding offices in the Colony, and not exceeding three in number at any one time, as may from time to time be appointed, together with four unofficial members who hold their appointments subject to re-appointment for a maximum term of six years. All legislation is initiated by the Governor, and a Bill becomes law immediately after it has passed the Council. It is not, however, finally embodied in the laws of the Colony until it has received Her Majesty's confirmation. In certain specified cases a suspending clause is inserted delaying the commencement of the law until Her Majesty's confirmation has been received. The unofficial members constitute the popular element in the Council. One of them is elected by the Bench of Justices, and another by the Chamber of Commerce. The others are nominated by the Governor, and all are subject to the Governor's approval and to final confirmation by Her Majesty. In equal divisions in the Council the Governor has a casting vote, and the official members are bound to vote with the Governor in matters that he considers vital, or else to resign their seats. The Estimates for the year also come under the consideration of the Legislative Council, and must be voted by the Council in advance. The proceedings of the Council are public, with the one important exception that the details of the Estimates and the money votes are considered *in camerâ* by the Council in its financial capacity, and the results formally reported and voted on in public, but without further debate. The chief departments concerned in the administration of the government of the Colony are the Judicial Departments, consisting of two Stipendiary Magistrates for the summary administration of Criminal law, and a Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief Justice, and Puisne Judge for the trial of the more serious crimes which the Magistrates commit to them, a Public Works Department which carries out the municipal development of the island, a Harbour Master who concerns himself with shipping and emigration, and a Police and Gaol Department which speak for themselves. There is also the Registrar-General's office, which, in addition to duties of registration that suggest themselves in connection with the title, has certain police and municipal duties in special connection with the Chinese population specified by law. It is also the traditionary channel through which communications from the Chinese population to the Governor travel.

The sanitary requirements of the Colony are superintended by a Sanitary

Board consisting of certain public officials, of whom the Surveyor-General and the Colonial Surgeon are the chief, and who work through the agency of Inspectors of Nuisances, each of whom has his particular district assigned to him. This Board was the outcome of a special inquiry into the sanitation of the Colony by a Commission appointed from home.

A visit to Hong Kong at the present moment by any one acquainted with the Colony in its earliest days would well repay the trouble.

The island lies from east to west, and consists entirely of a chain of hills varying in height from one thousand to two thousand in feet. It is approached from the south west, and from the north east. From Europe the south-west entrance is the most direct. As the steamer approaches from the south the island of Hong Kong lies stretched before it, a barren chain of hills with nothing to indicate its difference from the numerous other hilly islands that stud the seas in those parts beyond a few scattered houses on the hill-side, of European build, that diversify without improving the monotonous regularity of the island. A lighthouse on a tiny island lying just off the western corner of Hong Kong indicates the channel thus formed which the steamer has to take. The western slopes of Hong Kong are observed to be thickly studded with young trees, in marked contrast to the sterile heights elsewhere, and suggesting an intelligent system of afforestation. One hill is thickly studded with Chinese graves, which the traveller afterwards learns is the Chinese cemetery. A small viaduct running round the hill-side indicates the path made for the water supply of the town from its reservoir on the south side of the island. In the not very far distance in front lie the hills which form the coast of China, running parallel with the island of Hong Kong. On emerging from the channel, and as the steamer gradually rounds the western side of Hong Kong in her passage to the harbour on the north, the first signs of activity begin to present themselves. Newly built factories of European type are found to be a rope and a steam glass-manufactory, only recently opened under the auspices of the leading American firm of Messrs. Russell & Co.; a smoking heap of refuse some distance away on the water's edge, to which may be seen boats laden with rubbish wending their way, show that the sanitary requirements of the still invisible town are not unobserved, and the stealthy way in which many of these boats deposit their rubbish into the water, instead of troubling themselves to row to the refuse heap, suggests that a breach of law is being committed. As the steamer still progresses, the signs of life thicken, and at last she finds herself at the entrance to the harbour of Hong Kong, in the presence of a scene that never fails to elicit admiration. Thousands upon thousands of junks lie in rows upon the water. Some laden with cargo are making their final preparations for departure. Gongs are being beaten, crackers fired, and papers burnt to propitiate the deities to whose protection they are intrusting themselves; others lie to along the sea wall, and strings of coolies in pairs, with heavily laden bamboos on their shoulders, are transferring the cargo from the junks to the warehouses. Apart from these junks lie the foreign ships, a few of them sailing ships, that lie idly on the water waiting until they may be called, the majority of them steamers of all nationalities, but with the British mercantile ensign largely predominating, surrounded with a fleet of flat-bottomed Chinese boats, either discharging or loading the cargoes which belong to them. Amongst the distinctive flags

which force themselves upon the notice are those of the Peninsular and Oriental Steamship Company, the Messageries Maritimes Steamship Company, the Ocean Line of Steamers, formerly known as the Navigation Steamship Company, the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, the Oriental and Occidental Steamship Company, the Glen Line of Steamers, and numerous other companies that it is impossible to enumerate. In the yet further distance inwards is the man-of-war anchorage, where, if it be winter, may be seen representative ships of the fleets of all nationalities, or if summer only the British receiving ship, and one or two obsolete British gun vessels, with an ironclad, and other boats in reserve. Overlooking the shipping that animates the Hong Kong harbour stands the city of Victoria, backing its way in tier after tier from the water's edge up the steep slopes of Victoria Peak, and running along the edge of the northern slopes of the island for a distance of some four or five miles. Immediately opposite the town lies the mainland of China, the part of it forming the northern boundary of the harbour having been ceded to Great Britain in 1860, and known as the Peninsula of Kowloon. It occupies an area of three square miles, and of late years has formed the site of suburban villas for those whose fancy prefers a rural residence cut off from the town of Victoria. The mainland of China in this neighbourhood, like the island of Hong Kong, consists of a range of barren and precipitous hills running down almost to the water's edge in an easterly direction, and, as they gradually converge with those of Hong Kong, they at last close in and form the narrow channel which constitutes the approach to Hong Kong from the north east, and which is known as the Lyeemun Pass. The harbour of Hong Kong is thus almost land-locked on the east, and as seen from the west appears like a moderate sized lake, varying in width from one mile to five, and being about ten miles in length. Constant communication is kept up between the city of Victoria and the opposite shore of Kowloon by means of Chinese ferry-boats and steam-launches, and the daily supply of food for the whole town is brought over from the same quarter. The harbour is the channel of the China seas formed by the island of Hong Kong with the mainland of China. The Canton river runs into the sea at the west end of the island, and is distant from it about twelve miles, the intervening space being studded with islands and lofty hills. From no point therefore is the harbour of Hong Kong open to the sea, and though, while the mainland and Hong Kong converge in an easterly direction, they correspondingly diverge in a westerly direction, and accordingly leave the harbour considerably wider at the west than at the east, it is nevertheless sufficiently land-locked to protect it from the north-east monsoon in the winter, and from the violence of typhoons in the summer. For all purposes of trade it possesses the very rarest advantages. Its anchorage is thoroughly good, its waters of a uniformly good depth, and its area large enough to hold the fleets of the whole world. Its commercial advantages are only equalled by its scenic effects, and it is difficult to over-describe the beautiful *coup d'œil* which its panorama presents on an average winter day. The red and grey rocks of the rugged hills of the mainland mingling with the softly tempered tints of the winter sky, the busy picturesqueness of the constant stir of bright-coloured junks with their brown mat sails, with the bustling steam-launches and the stately steamships, and the line upon line of spectral-looking houses standing out from the mingled verdure and rocks

of the slopes of Victoria, produce a *tout ensemble* of which it is difficult to weary. Nature seems to have entered into a league with commerce to present the aspects of business under the British flag in the most alluring and attractive manner possible.

Nor is the favourable impression derived from the view from the harbour lost upon landing. Well-to-do shops, both English and Chinese, line the streets on either side; fine and substantial buildings of brick and granite attract the eye. There is an excellent and imposing-looking hotel, a handsome and commodious City Hall, well built and luxurious private residences, cathedrals Protestant and Roman Catholic, spacious police barracks, a massive stone gaol, and many other buildings of attractive appearance. The thoroughfares are regular and well kept. In the principal parts of the town a grateful shade is afforded by the thickly leaved rows of banyan trees which line the roads on either side, and on leaving the level of the sea road and the principal street the eye is charmed with picturesque copses of tropical verdure sloping up the hill-side, and leading to the beautiful public gardens which enrich the neighbourhood. In the streets a general air of activity conveys a pleasing sense of prosperity and contentment, and the spectator is amused by the bewildering confusion of jinrickshas, sedan chairs, pedestrians, peripatetic cook-stalls, hawkers, barbers' stands, coolies carrying on bamboos their nicely-balanced loads, and groups of women, with children strapped on to their backs, all making a motley crowd that fill the streets from morning to night. At night-time all is quiet, and none, save those who have obtained passes to go out from the police, can leave their houses except at the risk of arrest.

The police consists of about seven hundred and fifty men, three hundred of whom are water police, whose duties consist in rowing the police boats which patrol the harbour. The remainder are about one hundred Europeans, recruited chiefly from Scotland and Liverpool, a hundred Sikhs, and two hundred and fifty Chinese. The ranks of the Sikhs are filled with voluntary recruits from India, who come in response to letters from their friends already employed in the police force, and the Chinese are recruited in the Colony itself. Every Chinaman before enlisting has to find security in one householder to the amount of fifty dollars for his good behaviour while in the force. His salary is about seven dollars a month. He is taken on for three months on probation, and if found to give satisfaction is enlisted for a period of five years. At the end of ten years' service he can either re-enlist or draw his pension, or, if he prefers it, commute it for a lump sum. The service is extremely popular. He is warmly clad and well fed, and is not too hard worked. His hours are eight hours a day in periods of four hours. He is armed with a truncheon, and at night-time, if on duty on the high roads, with a long spear. Great differences of opinion have prevailed with regard to the expediency of employing Chinese in the police force. It has been argued that they are innately disqualified for the office; that their whole previous bringing up and surroundings have unfitted them for police duties, and that to employ them is to inaugurate a system of terrorism and corruption. It is not to be denied that the objections against them are of gravest weight, and by no means unbased on fact. The experience, however, of a few years has shown that they are capable of great improvement. Their whole tone, morale and general

physique have been distinctly raised, and there is no reason why with judicious management and well-regulated discipline they should not form an excellent body. In the detection of crime they are invaluable. They are not wanting in courage, and they are very intelligent. Their danger lies in the very qualities which make them valuable, and in the possibility, nay, even in the probability, of the establishment by them of a secret service of police, preying upon the people, and taking advantage of their ignorance of British law. Especially is this the case in such matters as public gambling, the social evil, sanitation, and other kindred matters; and, generally speaking, it may be accepted as a principle, that while they are excellent in the detection of crime and in the arrest of *bonâ fide* criminals, they should be employed as little as possible in municipal matters, or in such things as bring them into continuous intercourse with the general body of the population. The atmosphere of corruption in which the Chinese are brought up in China renders them an easy prey to any extortionate policeman, while the threats against disclosure, and a natural disinclination to come into collision with a powerful body like the Chinese police, makes it correspondingly difficult to detect malpractices of this kind. The further danger that has been apprehended in their employment, that they would at critical times be under the control of the authorities on the mainland and be secret enemies to British rule, is also not without reason; but so far, at any rate, they have shown themselves extremely loyal, and appear to have a genuine pride in serving under the British Government.

The mention of the police leads on to the subject of crime in Hong Kong. One of the main difficulties of British administration in this Colony is the treatment of the criminal population. The great diversity that exists between British and Chinese methods of dealing with criminals is emphasized and brought into relief by the small distance which separates the two territories, and the problem with which the administration is constantly confronted is how to prevent Hong Kong from becoming the Alsatia of the neighbouring Chinese province of Kwantung, at the same time that it abides by the more enlightened principles of treatment which humanity and experience have suggested in England. It cannot be denied that the primary tendency of a humane system of prison administration to a people accustomed to the miseries and horrors of a Chinese prison is to diminish the terror of the law, and to increase the number of previously convicted. This tendency is further aggravated by the point of view from which a Chinaman instinctively regards crime directed against foreign laws as compared with crime committed in his own country. It is impossible for him to emancipate himself from the contempt which he secretly feels for anything that is not Chinese, and "larceny" in China is too apt to be merely "conveyance" in Hong Kong. Moreover, the whole system of British Government is so widely different from that in China, and, superficially viewed, so inferior, that respect for the administration is practically absent from a Chinaman's mind. Instead of the exclusive officialdom to which he is accustomed, he finds British officials mixing freely with the society in which they are thrown. There is nothing to distinguish them, either in their habits, their dress, or in any other way from the community of which they are members. They join freely in the current amusements of the day, and no more respect attaches to them out of office than what their actual character as individuals commands. So incomprehensible is this system to

the Chinese mind, and so derogatory to their preconceived notions of what is due to and from office, that they cannot even apply the ordinary language of officialdom to the governing body. They invent names which appear best to describe the functions of the officials, and dislike in any way recognizing the identity of the duties which belong to official life, whether in China or elsewhere. Add to these drawbacks that the population of Hong Kong is largely migratory, and that there is a constant stream to and from the mainland, it is not surprising that the suppression of crime in Hong Kong is a matter of great difficulty.

The apparent increase or decrease of crime in any one period forms no gauge of the permanent tendency of social order in Hong Kong. A chance flood or failure of a rice crop on the mainland, or a political catastrophe or any other disturbing influence, will cause an influx of strangers into Hong Kong, who will very soon make themselves felt in the criminal history of the island. It must always be remembered that there is a constant migratory population to and from the mainland. Steamers capable of conveying two or three thousand Chinese run daily and nightly to and from the great city of Canton, and for the small sum of sixpence a Chinaman may be conveyed from his own country to the Colony of Hong Kong. Statistics, therefore, as a test of the social progress of the settled population of Hong Kong are not easy to collect, and the observer has to be guided rather by the pervading tone of the community at large than by the figures of crime for any particular period.

In this other respect a distinct improvement is discernible. With the increasingly large section of orderly people which business and British protection invite to Hong Kong, there is a growing tendency for the community to regard itself as a self-contained body, the acts of whose individuals reflect credit or discredit upon the general community; imprisonment thus becomes a social stigma which is more and more keenly felt, and the criminal classes have begun to be regarded as an alien body separated by the feeling of the community from a common interest in the public weal. The general current of British administration tends largely to promote the growth of this feeling. The care that is taken in the sifting of cases, the reluctance that is manifested to commit to prison, and the sparing use of the severer remedies which the law holds in reserve for the gravest offences, all tend to foster this feeling, and the sentiment thus created may be accepted as a testimony to the beneficent influences silently exerted by a Government whose leading feature is its sympathetic consideration for the susceptibilities of the alien population over which it rules.

Perhaps nothing has been more conducive to the estrangement of the criminal classes than the encouragement given by the Government to education in the Colony. The Chinese are extremely alive to the advantages of a good education, and they eagerly seek admittance to the schools that the Colony possesses. In the year 1884 there were 90 schools subject to supervision by the Government attended by 5,885 pupils, showing an increase of 51 schools, and 3,222 scholars under Government supervision in ten years time. In the same year there were also about 100 private schools not under Government supervision, attended by about 2,000 pupils. The main educational centre of the Government is the Central School, which teaches concurrently Chinese and English, its main object being to give to the Chinese a sound elementary middle-class education in the

ordinary branches of study that are favoured in Western Schools. It is extremely popular with the Chinese, who obtain in it a knowledge of English and of Western ideas that materially assists them in obtaining employment of a higher kind hereafter. The school is capable of accommodating 560 pupils, all of whom are day scholars, and its numbers are only limited by the space at its disposal. It is about to be replaced by a larger building, the scope of its education is to be enlarged, and the name of Central School will be substituted by that of Victoria College. Five other schools under direct Government management act as feeders to the Central School, and there are also twenty-four more, also under direct Government management, in which the education is Chinese only. They are attended by about 1,000 pupils. In all the Government Schools the education is entirely secular. A further encouragement is given to education by the Grant in Aid System, by which any school that is willing to submit itself to Government Inspection, and to conform with certain rules laid down for its guidance may obtain a contribution from the Government in the form of fixed fees for each pupil who passes a required standard and a personal fee to the teacher who instructs him. These schools may be denominational so far as they themselves are concerned, but the Government will recognize their secular aspect only. The total cost to the Government in the year 1884 was thirty-three thousand six hundred and fifty dollars, or about seven thousand pounds sterling, for the education of five thousand eight hundred and eighty-two children, being an average of five dollars seventy-one cents a-head, not including the cost of buildings, repairs, and of the Inspectorate of schools. It is estimated that about one-third of the children of school-going age at the present time receive education, the great majority of those not educated being females. From an English standpoint, the system of Government education would probably be condemned as reaching only the middle classes, whose educational requirements should be met by private enterprise, and missing the poorer classes, whose necessities are more imperative. It is, however, very well adapted to the views of the Chinese inhabitants, and is a great element in popularising British rule, and inducing respectable Chinese to settle in the Colony.

From the first, great stress has been laid upon the importance of inducing the better sort of Chinese to settle in the island; and in the early years of the Colony much disappointment was felt at their great reluctance to come under British rule. It was a matter of common complaint in 1846 that there was not a single respectable Chinaman in the place. An irksome system of registration, with an accompanying fee, being incumbent on every Chinaman coming to the place, with the alternative penalty of imprisonment, deterred many from making the experiment; and it was not until some years after the cession of the Colony that matters took a favourable turn in this respect. At the present moment there are numerous wealthy merchants living in the Colony, there are bankers, and insurance agents, and stockbrokers, and various other representatives of a thriving commercial community. It is to be remarked, however, that, except in very rare instances, they do not make Hong Kong their home. Their wives and families remain behind on the mainland, and in the course of time the settlers also turn their faces homewards. This is so pronounced a feature of Chinese settlement in all parts, that it is not

surprising that Hong Kong should form no exception to the rule. It is a place of artificial growth, without any internal attractions of its own; and its condition at any one time merely reflects the existing circumstances of trade then going on. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, if the Chinese as a body do not regard it as a permanent resting-place.

As property-holders, however, they may be regarded as permanently attached to the soil; for they make extensive purchases of land, and build substantial tenements, and are therefore important contributors to the revenue, as well as by their presence being main elements in the social good order of the Colony.

The question of revenue is one of great importance to Hong Kong, and frequently of grave embarrassment. As has been stated, Hong Kong is a barren island, owing everything to its position and nothing to itself. It has no products and few resources, and it owes its growth and present prosperity to its unrivalled position as a port of call for the shipping of the whole trade with China, and to its adaptability as a basis of commerce under a flag that commands respect. Its wealth is, in fact, made up of the imperceptible accumulations of the leavings of the trade that passes through its waters. There is not a ship or boat that casts its anchor in the harbour that does not contribute its mite to the wealth of Hong Kong, and not a ship or boat the less that does not depress to the extent of the limits of its effective value the prosperity of the Colony. While, however, there is an immediate response in a growing population and increase of material prosperity to any development of trade, it is not accompanied with any correspondingly adequate development of the sources of revenue. The port being a free port, it has no cognizance of the trade that goes on within it, and the public revenue therefore only benefits indirectly where the public benefits directly; and thus, while the increase of trade and other causes attract fresh numbers to the Colony and generally benefit the place, the revenue develops in a lesser ratio, and the Government suddenly finds itself confronted with an urgent demand for larger public works, necessitated by the growth of the population, without further means of providing for them than existed before. This is what is now taking place in Hong Kong; and, much as the Government would like to impose fresh taxation, they have the greatest difficulty in knowing where to place it. They cannot interfere with the freedom of the port, and other means of taxation that will reach the Chinese without driving them away are not easy to find.

The following returns of Revenue and Expenditure since 1850 will be perused with interest:—

1850	£	1855	£
Revenue	23,526	Revenue	47,973
Expenditure	34,314	Expenditure	40,813
1860		**1865**	
Revenue	94,182	Revenue	175,717
Expenditure	72,390	Expenditure	195,376
1870		**1875**	
Revenue	190,673	Revenue	186,818
Expenditure	183,595	Expenditure	181,337
1880	$	**1886**	$
Revenue	1,069,947	Revenue	1,274,973
Expenditure	948,014	Expenditure	1,152,382

The capital of the Colony is its land. This is disposed of in leases of nine hundred and ninety-nine years for inland and marine lots, seventy-five years for farm lots, such as obtain on the hill tops, and fourteen years for garden lots, such as the suburban residences in the Kowloon Peninsula. All land is disposed of by public auction, at an upset price, and on a previously determined Crown Rent, and the advances are made on the upset price. In certain localities land is very valuable, and on the sea road and in the main business parts of the town would be worth about four shillings a foot. As roads are made, sites are eagerly sought after, and no expenditure is better laid out than in a judiciously selected road. A tramway, that is now being laid up to the top of the peak from the town by private enterprise, will probably be of benefit to the revenue by the impetus it will give to the purchase of land on the higher levels, as it will also be a great boon to those who are able only to spare but a short time from the heated atmosphere of the town.

For whatever may be said in praise of the Colony as a monument of British energy and enterprise, Hong Kong, like most British Possessions, has not an attractive climate. During the winter months, from October to the end of February, the climate is unequalled for its bracing properties, its invigorating breezes, and its beautiful skies. Day after day succeeds one another with the same delightful monotony of clear unsullied skies, the same equal temperature, and the same cool breezes tempered by a genial sun. During these months the thermometer ranges from a maximum of eighty-five in October to a minimum of thirty-seven in January. Little or no rain falls, the total for the whole of the winter months being not more than three or four inches. It is succeeded by the gloomy skies of March and April, when everything is shrouded in mist and steeped in moisture, by the rains and heat of May, June, July, August, and by the storms and oppression of the month of September. These are the months of the south-west monsoon, as those of winter are the months of the north-east monsoon. The town being situated on the north side of the hills is shut off from the cooling effects of the south-west wind, and during the whole of the summer it is steeped in an atmosphere of steamy heat, which is as injurious to the health as it is disagreeable to its victims. The heat in these months ranges from a maximum of ninety-six in August, to a minimum of seventy-five in April. There is but little variation between the temperature of night and day, though sudden and dangerous chills frequently accompany the storms that break over the town. The commencement of the south-west monsoon is ushered in with thunder-storms of occasionally great violence. They occur almost daily in some measure, though it is but rarely they attain the magnitude of first-class storms. On the latter occasions they are appalling in their magnificence, and the air seems drunk with electricity. Flash succeeds flash and peal succeeds peal with inexpressible rapidity. All nature trembles, and lookers on gaze aghast. Little damage, however, is done by the lightning, and such storms are invariably accompanied by heavy rain. The rainfall for the year averages about eighty-four inches, nearly the whole of which falls in the summer months. An excessive day's rainfall is from eight to ten inches, an ordinary fall is a couple of inches. A large monthly rainfall is thirty inches, and a small one seven inches. The rains are intermittent, and are interspersed with periods of brilliant sunshine and great heat.

These are sometimes the precursors of the dreaded cyclones or typhoons which haunt the China Seas during the summer months. Hong Kong, though out of their regular track, is occasionally visited by them, and notwithstanding the shelter afforded on all sides by the lofty hills, the damage they occasion is very great. The month of September, at the time of the autumnal equinox, is the period in which they generally visit Hong Kong. No year passes by without one of the storms occurring in the neighbourhood, but three or four years, or even more may go by without Hong Kong being actually visited.

The following Table shows the rate of mortality among Foreign Residents in Hong Kong, during the ten years ending in 1884 :—

Years.	Number of European and American Residents.	Deaths.	Percentage of Deaths to Number of Residents.
1875	2,520	59	2·34
1876	2,520	74	2·93
1877	2,767	84	3·03
1878	2,767	67	2·42
1879	2,767	55	1·98
1880	2,767	69	2·49
1881	3,040	64	2·10
1882	3,040	55	1·80
1883	3,040	81	2·06
1884	3,040	94	3·09
Average of ten years	28,268	702	2·424

Dysentery, fever, diarrhœa, and liver complaints are the most prevalent forms of illness amongst Europeans. Epidemics are not known, with the exception of small-pox, which is very common amongst the Chinese in the winter months. Of late years also Asiatic cholera has appeared in the Colony, and it has yet to be seen whether it will prove other than sporadic.

To sum up. In every aspect of material prosperity the Colony has greatly advanced. Its population, which in 1841 was seven thousand, in 1886 is 180,000; its shipping from a few tens of thousands of tons has risen to nearly five millions and a half. Its revenue, which in 1844 amounted to sixty-three thousand pounds, in 1866 amounts to two hundred and twelve thousand five hundred pounds. The capital of its Public Companies amounts to over five million pounds sterling, and the present prices of the Shares to more than double that amount. It is estimated that fully thirty millions of pounds worth of trade changes hands in the year. It is in close communication with all parts of the world, and is connected by shipping companies and by wire with all the trade centres of the universe. It is in telegraphic communication with Europe, America, and Asia; events that are happening in any part of the world are known at once in this distant spot. Mail steamers run weekly to England, and a constant succession of steamers run from it in every conceivable direction. It is thirty days distant from England, twenty-six days distant from San Francisco, three weeks from Australia, three weeks from Pekin, fourteen days from Ceylon and Calcutta, six days from Singapore and Japan, three days from Shanghai

and Mamla. From Canton itself, the great port of Southern China, it is six hours removed, and steamers run to and fro by night and by day. It possesses extensive docks, numerous warehouses, and several important manufactories; in all the more prominent aspects of civilized life it stands conspicuous. It has a public school for the children of Europeans, a Cathedral for Protestants, and a Cathedral for Roman Catholics; libraries, theatres, clubs, and all the out-door amusements of English home life are reproduced in its midst, and the private residences of the Europeans are replete with all the comforts and refinements of town life in England.

It must, however, never be forgotten that it is on trade alone that the prosperity of the Colony depends. After forty years of occupation the island is still, or nearly so, as unproductive and destitute of resources as ever. A few more acres may be under cultivation, but they do not appreciably affect the conditions of the place, and the afforestation that is steadily progressing, though highly desirable from many points of view, is not for a long time, if ever, likely to be of economic value to the Colony. There is, it is true, one point in which it is possible that there may be a source of income to the Colony independently of the trade which passes through her waters, namely, in the growth of steam manufactories. Already there has been a marked progress in this direction during the last few years, and Hong Kong now possesses rope, glass, sugar, rum, and other commodities manufactured by steam. Theoretically viewed no place could be better circumstanced than Hong Kong for the development of steam manufactures. On the borders of a great country in which all commodities are manufactured by hand, Hong Kong would seem to be exactly the place in which to plant steam factories. It is possible, however, that the physical drawbacks of the island, with its hilly uncompromising character, and the possible dislike which the Chinese might entertain towards such undertakings, may debar capitalists from running the risk of the necessarily heavy initial outlay.

The development of Hong Kong has been the ordinary municipal development of settlements owing their prosperity to causes exterior to themselves; and its interest historically lies principally in the enquiry as to how far British notions of government have been able to adapt themselves to the wants of an alien population, while preserving their own interests uppermost, and in the immediate neighbourhood of the powerful influences of Canton.

There can be little question as to the popularity of British rule with the Chinese. The promises held out to them in the early proclamations inviting them to the island have been conscientiously kept, and in the treatment of them throughout there has been a sympathetic consideration for their susceptibilities which has not passed unappreciated by the mass of them. The consequence has been that after the first few years of the settlement the Chinese have flocked to the place, and have made it their temporary home. At first their liking for British rule was an indefinite sentiment of relief at the unwonted freedom to which they were introduced, and it took them some time to realize that the severities of government to which they were accustomed did, in the case of the British Government, actually not exist.

With the lapse of time this liberty of action and absence of any outward demonstration of power has generated in the Chinese mind a consciousness of strength, which, combined with the insuperable contempt which at heart

nearly every Chinaman feels for the manners and institutions of foreigners, occasionally leads to dangerous manifestations of defiance to the laws of the Colony: and there is always a risk that with their constantly increasing numbers and their powers of combination they may get out of control and take the law into their own hands. An instance of this occurred so recently as 1884, when, in consequence of a fine having been inflicted on some boat people for refusing to work when legally bound to do so, the entire boating population struck work, all business was suspended for two or three days, the military had to be called out, and for some time the gravest consequences were apprehended. This risk is also especially great at the present time, when the Government is about to energetically take up the question of sanitation; for it touches so nearly their domestic concerns, and any systematic endeavour to introduce Western ideas of sanitation into the Chinese quarter must so inevitably strike at the very root of some of their ingrained notions, that nothing but the very greatest tact and delicacy of treatment will prevent disturbances. The only course is to work with them and not against them, and to guide rather than force them. It is not improbable that when large questions of policy involving sustained consistency of treatment for a lengthened time come to the front, an attempt will be made to broaden the basis of representation of this portion of the population, and to admit them to a share of the government. The machinery by which the Government has hitherto kept touch of the Chinese population has been mainly by the instrumentality of the Registrar-General's Office. The head of this department is for certain purposes protector of the Chinese, and in the absence of other means it has been the fashion to recognize him as the medium of all communications to and from the Government with the Chinese. So long as the Chinese required protection this system worked well enough; but now, when the situation is reversed, and it is rather the foreign community that requires protection, some other system is required. This was practically recognized in 1870, when the semi-political, semi-charitable institution of the Tung Wa Hospital, which has already been mentioned, was founded. It had, however, the drawback of being left entirely in the hands of the Chinese, without a representative of the Government on its working Commission; and it has in the lapse of time gradually assumed the *rôle* of a kind of secret conclave for the management of Chinese affairs apart altogether from the Government. Nor is the Government able to consult its members unreservedly, because its political character, though very easy to have been foreseen, was never avowedly taken into calculation; and it is, in fact, though in many respects a very admirable institution, and having at the head of it the most respectable Chinese in the Colony, not altogether in touch with the Government. It works outside of all, apart from the Government, and cannot therefore be regarded as an effective part of the body politic. A yet further attempt in the direction of bringing the Chinese into closer connection with the Government has been made in the appointment of a Chinese gentleman to an unofficial seat on the Legislative Council; but even this is not considered a wholly adequate basis. The appointment is made by the Government, and not by election, and it is always competent for the Chinese to say that he does not represent their opinions. With the important questions of sanitation and taxation pending, it is likely that a change will before long be made, and it is not improbable that it will take

the form of elective councils, from which a member will be elected to represent the others in the Legislative Council. The great body of the Chinese are highly loyal to the Government, and it is very important that the sound advice and valuable information that they are able to give in matters affecting the Chinese population should be utilized and made an active element in the constitutional government of the Colony.

With regard to the Chinese authorities at Canton, too, there is room for congratulation. It is not to be expected but that in the history of an island so situate as Hong Kong, on the very borders of the great Empire of China, with which there is daily and hourly communication, the relations between the Government of China and that of a Government exercising sovereignty over Chinese people on diametrically different principles, give rise to occasional incidents. It may on the whole, however, be said that these relations are surprisingly good, and that since the Treaty of Tientsin, and the regulation of British trade with China, and the absence of any ulterior or aggressive object which experience has shown to be wanting in the British possession of this island, the friendly feelings which the British Government are anxious to cement are visibly strengthening, and that an altogether different view of the Colony is entertained to what at the outset it gave rise. By a policy of systematic and conciliatory co-operation with the Chinese authorities on the mainland in any local matters in which the interests of both parties are concerned, such as for instance the suppression of piracy and other crime; by non-interference with the silent influence exerted by the constant interchange of friendly ideas and sentiments in the current course of commercial proceedings, by the steady and public support of institutions specially affecting the welfare and moral progress of the Chinese population, together with a firm and unflinching resentment of any attempts to interfere with the sovereignty of the island, the relations between the two will steadily progress, and will affect not only the local interests of Hong Kong and the neighbouring province of Kwantung, but the permanent relationships of the two Empires.

As has been said, occasions do at times arise in which differences of interest or of wishes conflict. Such for instance is the so-called blockade of Hong Kong, which consists in a cordon of customs stations planted all round the island in its immediate neighbourhood, to the great annoyance of the inhabitants of Hong Kong, with its irritating systems of espionage, and the not unfrequent alleged actual infringements of the rights of the Colony, and breaches of international law. Such for instance again are the questions which sometimes arise regarding the condition of criminals, which by the Treaty of Tientsin the British Government agreed to allow upon proof of guilt, but which it has since made conditional upon the promise of the Chinese Government not to use torture. The strike too recorded in the last paragraph was the outcome of orders issued by the Viceroy of Canton, that Chinese in Hong Kong were not to do any work for the French in that Colony; and at all times the Chinese authorities can exercise great leverage in Hong Kong matters, in consequence of the pressure they can bring to bear upon the families on the mainland of those residing in Hong Kong. As has been said, however, in the main it may be safely admitted that concurrently with the growth of Hong Kong there has been a gradual improvement in the mutual relationships of the two

authorities locally, while the process of the development of the Colony has been not one of the least powerful elements in the establishment of friendly relations with Great Britain and China.

Upon a review of the whole history of Hong Kong, therefore, it may fairly be conceded that the Colony is fulfilling her purpose. One has only to contemplate her loss to fully appreciate the immense importance which Hong Kong is to Great Britain. Lying directly in contact with the great Empire of China, and with it, while not of it, its silent influence has been constantly at work in the whole of the Empire which it touches. Its rapid rise to prosperity, its unaggressive acquiescence in the strict limits of its borders, and its just and conciliatory government have not failed to impress the intelligent Chinese. Its possession by a Power strong enough to be respected has allowed time for angry feelings to evaporate, while it has enabled the continuity of commercial progress to be maintained unimpaired. The consciousness of its existence with its naval and military appliances has facilitated the planting and growth of other commercial communities elsewhere, and the freedom and protection that it affords to all who come within its range enhance its commanding influence. Keeping touch with all the countries in the world who have dealings with China, there is not an event by which she is not affected, or a commercial development by which she does not benefit. She is the pivot of Chinese commerce, and her influence extends with its growth. By her attitude as regulated by Great Britain an incomparably better feeling prevails between the two Empires than could otherwise have been effected, and whether events require her as the starting-point of fresh commercial enterprises or the temporary guardian of British interests, she is equally adapted for either capacity. It is fondly to be hoped that the same broad principles of liberty of the subject, encouragement of order, and humanity of administration that have characterised her in the past may continue to adorn Hong Kong in the future.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—Hong Kong is one of a number of islands off the south-eastern coast of China, at the entrance to the Canton River. It is separated from the mainland by the Ly-ee-moon Pass, a narrow strait of not more than half-a-mile in width. Immediately opposite is the peninsula of Kow-loon, ceded by the Chinese to Great Britain in 1861, and now forming part of the Colony. The length of the island of Hong Kong is about 11 miles, its breadth from 2 to 5 miles, and its area a little in excess of 29 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The greater part of the island is mountainous, some of the peaks rising to a height of nearly 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. The highlands descend with considerable abruptness towards the north, but the slope on the south side is more gentle, and some nearly level tracts occur between the mountains and the sea. The whole island is well watered. In the summer months the climate is very hot, and there is at that season of the year a heavy rainfall. The northern part of the island, which is deprived by the high ground of the interior of the advantage of

the south-west monsoon, which prevails at the time mentioned, is in consequence in the summer, somewhat unhealthy, from the prevalence of malaria, but the southern side, which is exposed to the monsoon, is more generally salubrious.

TOWNS.—The city of Victoria is situated in the northern part of the island, on the south side of a magnificent harbour, some ten square miles in extent. It contains upwards of 40,000 inhabitants, is a great military and naval station of Great Britain in this part of the world, and enjoys a very considerable trade.

BRITISH NORTH BORNEO.

ALTHOUGH not an officially recognised Colony of the United Kingdom, British North Borneo has very properly been admitted to the Colonial and Indian Exhibition, and a few facts with regard to the origin of its settlement will therefore not be out of place.

For many years past public attention has been drawn to Borneo as a promising field for colonization, and in 1877, by dint of untiring exertion and lavish expenditure both of time and money, some influential English gentlemen obtained from the Sultans of Brunei and Luler, the rulers and chiefs of the northern portion of this large island, some important concessions, which were vested in an Association merged later in the present British North Borneo Company. The Company's energy and patriotic intentions having obtained the approval of Her Majesty's Government, a Royal Charter was issued in its favour on the 1st November, 1881, which charter, besides conveying an official recognition of the cession, confers extensive corporate powers upon the Company.

The area acquired is some thirty thousand square miles in extent, and forms a kind of irregular triangle, more than two-thirds of which are bounded by the sea. The coast extends to over 500 miles, and all islands within three leagues are included in the cession, and the territory occupies an important position in the China Seas, with splendid harbours and navigable rivers.

The objects of the Company are the opening up of the vast natural resources of the country, by the introduction of capital and labour, and the benefits of civilized Government. The advantages accruing from these were so clearly shown in the case of the neighbouring Colonies of Hong Kong and the Straits Settlements, as to leave no doubt that if carried out under proper conditions the colonization of North Borneo cannot fail to be attended with equally beneficial results. In addition, therefore, to the ripe experience of many members of the Directorate, the Company secured the able services of Mr. W. H. Treacher, formerly Acting Governor of Labuan, and Consul-General for Borneo, to whom they confided the Governorship of their newly-acquired domain.

The concession of a territory larger than Ceylon and nearly as large as Great Britain, with all territorial and sovereign rights, formally recognized and sanctioned by the Crown, under a Royal Charter, gave rise to much criticism both at home and abroad. The Spanish and Netherland Governments more especially were not slow to put forward claims of pre-emption or suzerainty, and they opposed the grant of a Charter as an enroachment and violation of treaties with the native rulers. The Suzerainty claimed over the whole of the Eastern Archipelago from the Philippines to New

Guinea, though none of the hundred isles, including Borneo, had ever been in useful occupation by either power, with the exception of Luzon, with its capital Manilla, by the Spaniards, and Java by the Dutch, during the four centuries which had elapsed since the first appearance of the Spaniards and Dutch in the Eastern seas was repudiated. A barren monopoly of possession was contested by the British Government with Spain and Holland respectively, and only finally disallowed after two years of diplomatic correspondence, filling two Blue Books.

So novel an incident in modern times as the grant of a Royal Charter to a private company for the founding of a colony in the Eastern seas, gave an opportunity also to the Opposition in Parliament to raise a debate in both Houses. The result, however, in spite of all hostile comment, was to leave the new Company and its Charter invested with the sanction of Parliament by a large majority in the House of Commons, and without a division in the House of Lords. The grant of a Charter was vigorously defended by the Prime Minister himself in the former, and by the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in the latter.

Since that date it is not unworthy of note that one of the greatest and far-seeing of the statesmen of the present day—the German Chancellor Bismarck—when carrying out his newly developed designs for the extension of colonial interests under the Empire, adopted not only exactly the course of our Government, by granting a Charter to Companies willing to engage in such enterprises—in the Cameroons, in Eastern Africa, and in New Guinea—but, bolder than our own Government, and less careful perhaps to avoid responsibility, the German Chancellor extended a Protectorate over each territory as an additional security against aggression from without, a course which has not yet been adopted in regard to North Borneo.

It was not only easy to demonstrate that the objects of the Company were unexceptionable, but deserving of encouragement, as calculated to prove of national benefit. They were, moreover, in strict accordance with the Treaty entered into by the British Government with the Sultan of Borneo, signed in 1847, wherein it is recited that the desire of the Queen was "to encourage commerce between Her Majesty's subjects and the subjects of the independent rulers of the Eastern seas, and to put an end to piracies which have hitherto obstructed that commerce."

A small additional effort in this direction was made by Her Majesty's Government when this Treaty was negotiated by the cession of Labuan, an island on the coast of Borneo, supposed to be an important station in this latitude, by its harbour and reputed coal mines. It was accordingly made a British Crown colony, with a Governor and other officers for effective administration. And although it has not realized the expectations formed, and has been a tax on the Imperial Revenue until quite lately, the desire to possess such a station in this region was fully justified.

The first bold conception of a plan (akin to that so successfully carried out by the late Sir James Brooke forty years before in Sarawak) to obtain by peaceable and legal means the possession of a territory of some 30,000 square miles, and develop its resources under equitable rule, was equally based on sound estimates of the importance of such an acquisition by British subjects in the national interest. Nor was this any modern discovery. The earliest Dutch and British navigators all saw a splendid

property in Borneo, and so far back as the reign of Queen Elizabeth companies of mercantile adventurers were largely and successfully engaged in preventing the total absorption of the rich trade of the Eastern Archipelago by Portugal, Spain, and Holland. These Powers had in succession claimed the territory in all the islands of the Archipelago and the Straits, including Malacca, and in 1602 the States-General of the Netherlands, in pursuance of a monopolizing policy, consolidated their various companies and created the "Netherland and East India Company," the first great joint-stock company whose shares were sold from hand to hand, and which proved to be the turning-point in the commerce of Europe. It was the spices of the Moluccas, especially the nutmegs and mace, the taste for which had rapidly spread in the Middle ages throughout Europe, which wrought this revolution; and this spice trade, more than any other, was the great prize for which the Dutch did battle, and in the end drove the Portuguese quite out of the field.

The English were slow, as is their habit, to follow the example of their commercial rival; nor did they take any serious action in this direction until moved by a purely accidental circumstance, the wreck of a Portuguese Indiaman on our coast, called the *Mother of God*, which excited public attention. This vessel was a ship of 1,600 tons, and on being towed into Dartmouth was found to contain a cargo of Eastern produce worth £150,000. It was only then that it seems to have been seriously contemplated to compete with the Dutch, and begin an Eastern trade of our own, instead of trusting for the supply of Eastern produce to an annual shipment from Venice. The merchants of London, Bristol, Plymouth, and other trading ports combined to contest with the Dutch the monopoly they enjoyed. The whole commerce of the East at this date was fast drifting into their hands as it slipped from the nerveless grasp of Portugal under the baneful rule of Spain. Together these two countries, under one rule, still retained indeed all the most advantageous positions in the Eastern seas, and therefore it was no light matter to dispute with them and the Dutch so profitable a trade. Nothing daunted, however, a company was formed, and on the last day of the 16th century Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to George, Earl of Cumberland and 215 knights, aldermen, and merchants, that "at their own cost and charges" they might set forth on one or more voyages to the East Indies, and be one body politic and corporate by the name of the "Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading with the East Indies." We cannot follow here the early operations of this great Company, destined to found an Eastern Empire, which placed an Imperial diadem on the brow of another Queen, our present gracious Sovereign. The voyage of Captain Lancaster and the establishment of British factories at Acheen and Bantam were the first fruits. The despatch of five ships laden with merchandise under Captain Lancaster in 1601 was a very risky venture, since they embarked in it £70,000, a large proportion of their whole capital, and sent it forth to encounter many perils both by sea and land. Enemies' ships armed to prevent all such intruders swarmed on all the coasts and over the whole route. It was crowned with success however commensurate with the boldness of the venture, and Lancaster and his ships returned in safety, after visiting Sumatra and Java and establishing factories, with freights of great value. One can only feel regret that Elizabeth, who

gave the Charter to the East India Company, did not live to see even this the earliest result of individual effort and character which she had encouraged by her patronage. For it has been truly remarked that the mercantile enterprise of those remote times, which effected such great results, was for the most part the work of individuals, either acting singly or associated in mercantile companies, at their "own cost and charges," as Queen Elizabeth, with characteristic caution, was careful to stipulate. In which, however, she was not singular, for neither the British Crown nor the other Governments of Europe had much to say in the matter, but left their subjects to fight their way as best they could, in the midst of adverse elements alike in the Spanish main and the Eastern seas, with their own resources and at their own cost and peril.

Governments in those days were content to reap all the benefits that might accrue without engaging themselves or the nations they governed in any direct responsibility in the event of failure or loss. The annual profits of the King of Portugal, as an example, from the spice trade alone, were estimated in 1529 at a sum of 200,000 ducats, an enormous sum at that date; and yet it was due rather to the individual influence of Prince Henry of Portugal that Vasco da Gama was enabled to make his great voyage round the Cape, which opened India to the Western Powers; and it has been cited as a curious fact in the world's history, that it was the search for spice-growing countries which led to the first circumnavigation of the globe, as it led also to the discovery of another passage into the Eastern seas from the Western hemisphere, the Magellan Straits and the Philippines, made by the ill-fated Magellan in the year 1521.

Borneo, which forms the centre and largest of the whole group of islands stretching from the Philippines to Australia over 40° of longitude, "fragments of a continent," as Wallace described them in his work on the Malay Archipelago, abounds in sources of wealth to this day, only requiring development by cultivation of the soil and industry under an equitable and civilised government. Both are essential requirements, and these it is the mission of the British North Borneo Company to supply. North Borneo, moreover, has this one special and exceptional advantage, that while the native population is small and easily governed, there is a command of Asiatic labour, fitted to the climate, in the overflowing population of China within five days' steam. The Chinese are a race which has already fertilised, by industry and persevering labour, nearly all the islands and colonies east of the Cape, and still supplies an inexhaustible reserve of labour wherever in these seas the workers can count upon fair wages and security for the fruit of their labour. This is an inestimable advantage for Borneo, where, under a tropical sun, it is impossible for Europeans to undertake the labours of the field, and who are not therefore, as are the planters in the West Indies, reduced to great straits from the difficulty of securing continuous labour at reasonable wages. Nor is it a less important and exceptional advantage for North Borneo, that it is out of the region of typhoons and the earthquakes which periodically work such havoc and ruin in the Spanish settlements in the Philippines, and the Dutch possessions in Java and Sumatra further south.

The commercial and strategic value of North Borneo very early attracted the attention of the East India Company. It was not reserved for the British North Borneo Company to make the first discovery. Many

of the islands from Manilla to Java, forming the Borneo group, with their tropic fertility and valuable products, possessed an amount of trade and prosperity which could not fail to attract attention, in the 16th century, before the withering hands of Spain and Holland were stretched over them; a prosperity of which, it is sad to reflect, there is now no trace. Our early navigators leave no doubt on this subject. Captain Daniel Blackman, in 1714, relating his voyage to Borneo, alludes to a considerable trade with China; and Mr. J. Hunt, in a report to Sir Stamford Raffles in 1812, says that "when the Portuguese first visited Borneo in 1520 the whole island was in a most flourishing state. The numbers of Chinese that settled on her shores were immense; the products of their industry and an extensive commerce with China in junks gave her land and cities a far different aspect from her appearance at this day, and their princes and courts exhibited a splendour and displayed a magnificence which has long since vanished."

This is further borne out by Regofetta, who spoke of the town of Brunei having 25,000 houses and being rich and populous. In 1809 there were not 3,000 houses left, nor 6,000 Chinese in the place, and not a junk had for years been seen in Bornean waters.

Mr. Hunt attributes this decay of commerce and prosperity to the direct action and mistaken policy of the Portuguese first, and subsequently the Dutch. Mistress of the Eastern seas, as the latter became, we are told they exacted "by treaties and other ways the Malay produce at their own rates, and were consequently enabled to undersell the junks in China. But these Powers went further; by settling at ports in Borneo, or by their Guarda de Costa, they compelled the ports of Borneo to send their produce calculated for the China markets, to Malacca and Batavia, which arbitrary and short-sighted proceeding at length completely cut up the direct trade by means of the China junks. The Rajahs finding their revenues reduced, turned their attention from trade and commerce to piratical enterprise. Agriculture was neglected, and lands hitherto cultivated were allowed to run to jungle and to waste." A result so obvious and inevitable that if their own profit and not the destruction of prosperous communities was the object of the Europeans, Portuguese or Dutch, it indicates a degree of judicial blindness as fatal to nations as to individuals. It was clearly suicidal, and they only reaped the fitting reward of their own flagitious acts. Mr. Hunt remarks too in his report, "that the English were not insensible to the value and importance of the once valuable commerce of Borneo, which may be inferred from the efforts they repeatedly made to establish themselves on its shores. There still exists the remains of a British factory in Borneo proper. Before the year 1706, they had made two successive attempts to fortify themselves at Benjarmasing, and twice they have attempted an establishment on the sickly island of Balambangan (lying north in Borneo near Murudu Bay), and in 1775 the Honourable Company's ship *Bridgewater* was sent to Pasir with similar views."

Mr. Hunt concludes his report hoping that Borneo as well as Java would be retained by the British Government, in the following words: "In looking over the map of the world it is a melancholy reflection that so large a portion of the habitable globe as all Borneo is abandoned to barbarism and desolation." And he trusted "that another age may not

be suffered to pass away without exhibiting something consolatory to the State, the Philosopher and the Philanthropist,"—and that this hope may be realised in this generation is the desire and aim of the British North Borneo Company.

The Indian Press, since the grant of the Charter, has spoken in the same sense. The *Bombay Chronicle* remarked: "The date of the Royal Charter for the incorporation of the North Borneo Company we hold to be a new era in the history of the progress of civilisation and commerce, and tending to the benefit of the world at large; since the island, which is inexhaustible in mineral and vegetable resources, has as yet remained a stranger to the enterprise of the merchant and the man of science. In the intimate connection of Great Britain with the island of Borneo India will find before long a fertile source of enhancing the prosperity of her people."

So we trust both India and Great Britain may find in this sanguine anticipation of the Indian Press a true forecast of a near future in the development of the colony and the resources of the territory of British North Borneo.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—The territory known as British North Borneo, which is under the control of a chartered company called the British North Borneo Company, consists of the whole of the northern part of the great island of Borneo, from the Padas River on the west, to the Sibuco River on the east coast, together with all the islands within a distance of three leagues, including those of Banguey and Balembangan. It is held under grants from the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu, and contains an area of about 25,000 square miles, with a coast line of about 600 miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Very little accurate knowledge of Borneo is possessed by Europeans, but the interior is believed to be hilly. At the north-east extremity of the island, the peak of Kina-balow attains an elevation of 13,680 feet. The country in the neighbourhood of the coast consists, for the most part, of low plains, well-watered, and, where not cultivated, covered with jungle and dense forests. The soil is very fertile, and well adapted for the growth of the usual tropical products, such as tobacco, sugar, coffee, &c. The coast of that portion of the island which is under British control contains numerous bays, several of which form good harbours.

SETTLEMENTS.—The principal stations of the company are at Sandakan on the east, which forms the head-quarters of the administration, Kudat on the north, and Gaya on the west. All these places have good harbours, especially Sandakan, which is situated on a magnificent bay some 15 miles in length, by 5 miles in breadth. Another good harbour has lately been discovered on the south side of Banguey island.

[The foregoing account of North Borneo is mainly taken from the publication known as the "Colonial Office List."]

WEST AFRICA SETTLEMENTS.

SIERRA LEONE.

GOVERNOR,
SIR SAMUEL ROWE, K.C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY AND TREASURER,
HON. T. RISELY GRIFFITH.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. FRANCIS FRED. PINKETT.

QUEEN'S ADVOCATE, LEGAL ADVISER, AND REGISTRAR-GENERAL,
HON. J. KENNEDY DONALDSON.

POLICE MAGISTRATE,
EDWIN ADOLPHUS.

AUDITOR-GENERAL,
J. C. GORE.

GAMBIA.

ADMINISTRATOR,
J. S. HAY.

TREASURER AND POSTMASTER,
G. T. CARTER.

CHIEF MAGISTRATE,
FRANCIS SMITH.

GOVERNMENT SECRETARY,
CAPTAIN W. P. ROCHE.

COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS,
COLIN G. BLACKBURN.

QUEEN'S ADVOCATE,
J. R. MAXWELL.

GOLD COAST.

GOVERNOR,

W. BRANDFORD GRIFFITH, C.M.G.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR,

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
CAPTAIN H. KNAPP HARROW, C.M.G.

ASSISTANT COLONIAL SECRETARIES,
FRANK SIMPSON, C. D. TURTON
WILLIAM GREY WILSON.

COLLECTOR AND TREASURER,
PERCIVAL HUGHES.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
HON. N. LESINGHAM BAILEY.

PUISNE JUDGES,
HECTOR WM. McLEOD, JOHN SMALMAN SMITH.

QUEEN'S ADVOCATE,
W. H. QUAYLE JONES.

LAGOS.

ADMINITRATOR,
CORNELIUS A. MOLONEY, C.M.G.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
F. EVANS, C.M.G.

WEST AFRICA SETTLEMENTS.

SIERRA LEONE.

Of the British possessions on the Western Coast of Africa, Sierra Leone may be said to be the one best known. It has not inaptly been described as the Liverpool of West Africa on account of the large amount of shipping, which, although it does not all enter the harbour, at least holds communication with it. The settlement, which, with recent annexations, now occupies a coast line of some 180 miles, has its south-eastern boundary contiguous to the Negro Republic of Liberia, the Mannah River, by a very recent treaty, dividing the two countries; whilst its northern boundary is approached by the Scarcies River. Geographically, it lies in the 7th and 8th degrees of northern latitude, and 12th and 13th longitudes west of Greenwich.

The inland boundaries of Sierra Leone never having been surveyed, it is with difficulty that an accurate area can be arrived at, but, with recent additions, it is estimated that the Government have jurisdiction over not less than 3,000 square miles.

The capital of Sierra Leone is Freetown, situated on a small peninsula about 18 miles long, and is approached by the Roquelle (or Sierra Leone) River some four miles from its mouth. Next in importance, if not, indeed, taking first place as an export station, is the Sherbro, distant about 80 miles from Freetown.* The history of the Colony, so far as it concerns England, dates from 1787, when the principal tract of land on which Freetown now stands was ceded by a native Timmaneh chief called Naimbanna, to an English company formed for the express purpose of establishing a settlement at Sierra Leone for the reception of freed negroes, who were then in England, and who were collected and sent out to create it. In 1792 and 1800, numbers of freed negroes from Nova Scotia and Jamaica arrived, and the Sierra Leone Company, which obtained a charter in 1800, transferred its rights to the Crown in 1807, and in the following year Thomas Ludlam, the first Colonial Governor, was appointed. On the abolition of the slave trade, and in later years when Great Britain applied itself warmly to its extinction, Sierra Leone was used as a depot for the reception of the cargoes that were captured: thus it will be readily seen how largely Sierra Leone was and is composed of a number of Africans of almost every race and tribe on the west and south-west coasts of Africa.

The great drawback to Sierra Leone, in common with other English

* For a detailed description of the early history of the country, see a paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute on 13th December, 1881, by the Honourable T. Risely Griffith, Colonial Secretary of the Colony, and published in Volume 13 of the Institute's Proceedings.

settlements on the same coast, is the climate. When it is remarked that the West Coast of Africa has the worst climate in the world, it is only stating a truism; and although sanitation, drainage, and pure water can do much to mitigate the evils which European residents especially have to contend with, the fact remains that the low-lying lands of West Africa possess disadvantages of residence which militate against their would-be rapid commercial progress. Men who live carefully nevertheless enjoy a fair amount of health, and the climate is often blamed for the results of undue exposure and immoderate living. The rainfall in Sierra Leone (Freetown) during 1885 was 142 inches, an average quantity, 100 inches having fallen in July to September. The dry season lasts about six months, from December to May; the temperature seldom exceeds 86° in the shade, and the average in houses where there is shade with air is from 78° to 84°. Residence on the hills is often recommended, but the irksomeness of the morning and evening transit is opposed to it. Residence in Sierra Leone is more tolerable than it was, and it might be much improved if the inhabitants could be persuaded to conform more closely to sanitary enactments. A better class of dwelling-houses would also conduce to the same end, but this can only be effected by time and capital.

Sierra Leone is a Crown Colony. The Governor is aided by an Executive (4) and Legislative Council (8), four of the latter body being native representatives nominated by the Crown. Thus every opportunity is given to the natives for ventilating their opinions. The law as administered is identical with that of England, subject to slight modifications to suit local requirements. There is a Chief Justice, a Queen's Advocate and Police Magistrates, with a police force of 300 men duly officered. The Government officials are Europeans, with some few exceptions; the clerical staff is, however, composed entirely of natives.

The trade of Sierra Leone may perhaps best be gathered from a perusal of the two following tables, which show the principle articles of import and export and total value for the past eight years. The bulk of the import trade is in spirits, tobacco, and Manchester goods, whilst the exports are composed of palm oil, palm kernels, ground nuts, benni-seed, india-rubber ginger, gum copal, hides, cola nuts, beeswax, &c.

It will be observed that the trade has considerably fallen off during the past few years. The sole cause of this is to be found in the constant intertribal wars occurring on the immediate borders, which, carried on for the purposes of pillaging and slave catching, have retarded trade, by preventing the planting and collecting of produce, and consequently its shipment. Colonial opinion, as may be gathered from the local press and other sources, holds strongly to the view that this state of things will never improve until the Government of Sierra Leone are permitted by the English authorities to employ force where necessary, to put a stop to these devastating and demoralizing feuds which have reduced, and are still further reducing, large districts around Sierra Leone to a state of misery and starvation.

Of industrial trade in Sierra Leone and its districts not very much can be said; there is no large industrial business of any kind.

The Sierra Leoneon is a lover of trade; he is a born trader, and his great ambition is to keep a store, or, failing this, to be a huckster. The latter class are principally women. The census taken in 1881 showed that nearly twenty-three per cent. of the residents on the peninsula were

engaged in trading and hawking. Many traders, principally women, have been known to carry their wares and stuffs over a hundred miles into the interior and trade with the natives, but of course all this is stopped in districts where intertribal wars are going on.

The tariffs in Sierra Leone are neither heavy nor numerous. The only import duties levied are upon liquors, tobacco, guns and gunpowder, and kerosine oil; and a wharfage duty of 10*s.* a ton on many other articles. Neither are the export duties heavy; a trifling charge on palm oil and nuts, ground nuts, cola nuts, hides and gum constitutes the source from which about £10,000 (in 1884 £6,200) of the revenue is derived.

The cola nut trade is a great feature in Sierra Leone; the nuts are collected and brought to Freetown from surrounding districts. The trade is principally carried on with the Gambia, whither the nuts are sent for sale to and barter with the Arabs and tribes of the interior.

Agriculture, in the true sense of the term, is very little carried on in Sierra Leone; all the produce which is brought into Freetown from the countries at the back is the result of slave labour. In Sierra Leone itself the people grow nothing for export except a little ginger, though each person in the villages possesses a small patch of land where he grows yams, cassava, sweet potatoes, &c., for his own consumption, but not in sufficient quantities to supply the entire population at all times.

There are no food resources of any kind except fish, which is good and plentiful; that is to say, there are no stocks; and if Sierra Leone were cut off from England and America for three months, it would be in a semi-starving condition. Rice is the only food supply that is kept, and as this is grown in districts which are constantly upset by predatory tribal wars, the production for the last three years has dwindled to the smallest proportions.

The Revenue of the Colony, which may be said to average £65,000 a year, is derived principally from customs. The duties on spirits and tobacco form the bulk of the taxation; the remainder is of the ordinary description in minor British Colonies, and is composed of various licenses and shipping, and harbour and light dues.

There are no railways or canals, nor is there need of the latter where so many excellent trade rivers abound. The shipping is considerable, steam communication with England takes place regularly once a week, and frequent steamers arrive and depart for Hamburg, Marseilles, and other ports. The total tonnage entered and cleared in 1884 was 413,000.

Sierra Leone was chosen on account of its excellent harbour as a coaling station for ships of the Royal Navy, and in the recent report of the Committee on Colonial Defences, Sierra Leone was recognized as a station of much importance. Batteries are now being erected and furnished with the necessary heavy guns.

This settlement is the headquarters of the West India Regiments stationed on the West Coast of Africa. The number of troops retained there is about 400. An English gun-boat is generally at anchor in the harbour.

Freetown is about to be connected by telegraph with England, the submarine cable is now laid to a point opposite the Isles de Los only some sixty miles distant, and in a few months there will be direct telegraphic communication between all the West African Colonies and England.

The last census returned the population of the peninsula of Sierra

Leone and British Sherbro at 60,546, and of this number Freetown contained 22,000. There were only 163 resident whites. 35,400 were stated to be liberated Africans and their descendants, whilst the remainder were composed of a large variety of mixed tribes.

There is not much emigration or immigration in Sierra Leone; a fair proportion of Sierra Leonians find employment as clerks, &c., on various parts of the coast, but there is no regular emigration, nor can it be said that any material addition is made to the population by natives from the outlying districts coming to reside in Sierra Leone. Education is considered in an advanced state for an African Colony. There are three or four excellent institutions for children of both sexes, whilst the elementary schools of all denominations are numerous and fairly supported and well attended.

Religious institutions flourish. It would be difficult to find a British Colony containing a greater number of churches and chapels of every shade of dissent.

The Church of England, which is presided over by an English bishop and a numerous native pastorate, numbers some 20,000 adherents. Sierra Leone has always been strongly supported by the Church Missionary Society. Fourah Bay College, where a few students matriculate every year, is affiliated to Durham University.

Sierra Leone is just now suffering, like many other parts of the world, from depression in trade; the causes are principally local, and have been alluded to in a previous page. Given peace, Sierra Leone as a trading-station and a highway of communication to interior Africa can hold its own with any place on the Western Coast. Capital is required. Fortunes have been made in Sierra Leone, and can be made again if only the Government can put a stop to the wars which destroy the trade of the country, but so long as these continue unchecked, commercial progress is retarded, and the settlement and its surroundings, instead of developing in that rapid manner of which it has given proof of its ability, will dwindle to the paltry proportions of earlier days.

THE GAMBIA.

THIS Settlement derives its name from the great African river at the mouth of which it is situated, and comprises the Island of St. Mary, with a part of the mainland opposite to it known as British Combo, Albreda, the Ceded Mile, and McCarthy's Island, situated between the Falls of Barraconda and Bathurst. The last-mentioned place, which is the capital of the settlement, is situate in 13° 24′ N. lat., and 16° 36′ W. long., on St. Mary's Isle, which, more properly speaking, is a sandbank about 3½ miles long by 1¼ mile broad, being separated from the mainland by a narrow channel known as Oyster Creek.

The first connection of England with this settlement dates nearly three hundred years ago, viz. from the year 1588, when Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to a party of Exeter merchants to trade with the Gambia. In the

reign of James I. a company was formed also for the purpose of trading there, but no good results flowed from this attempt to open up commercial relations, and we have little further information regarding it till the closing years of the reign of George I., when a traffic in slaves sprang up for the American and West Indian plantations, a traffic which was continued until the slave trade was abolished by Act of Parliament on Lady Day, 1807. The abolition of this nefarious means of gaining wealth had a reactionary influence upon the development of the Gambia for some few years; but a more healthy and legitimate trade sprang up in its stead in 1816, mainly owing to the settlement of St. Mary's Island by some English merchants from Senegal. Down to the year 1843 the Gambia was subject to the Governor of Sierra Leone, but was then created an independent colony, and remained so until the readjustment of the administration of the West African Settlements in 1866, when it was merged into the government of those settlements, and the charter, dated 19th December, 1874, further revising the administration, confirmed this provision with regard to it.

The year 1881 witnessed the fitting out of an important expedition for the purpose of exploring the Gambia river, and of ascertaining its capabilities as a highway for trade between the Coast and the interior, and also with the object of reaching Timbo, the capital of the Futa Jallon country. The expedition, which was everywhere well received by the natives, returned by way of Sierra Leone, having accomplished the journey in exactly three months. None of the countries passed through were at all thickly populated, and the largest town is that known as Toobah, which numbered only some 800 huts, and the renowned Timbo itself sadly belied the expectations which had been induced by native reports. The conclusion arrived at with regard to the contiguous native territory was that, in view of its scanty population, the difficulty of access and the frequency of the native wars, little increase of trade could be expected for some years to come. The Gambia river in its upper portion was found to be very winding, and was much interrupted by rocks, sand-banks, and shallows.

Ecclesiastically, the Gambia forms part of the diocese of Sierra Leone, from whence clergy, mainly supported by the great missionary societies at home, are sent for duty.

The settlement produces ground nuts, hides, beeswax, rice, cotton, maize, and a grain known as *Kous;* the three first-named articles being exported in considerable quantities. The tariff is an extremely liberal one, and no heavy import duties are levied on the productions from our principal centres of industry, even those on wine, spirits, and tobacco being very slight as compared with those at home. Firearms it has been found necessary to tax somewhat heavily; but these may be said to constitute the sole exception to the very advantageous and kindly manner in which the West African Settlements treat goods from the mother country.

Although the Gambia has not escaped the prevailing depression, its trade may be said to have increased of late years at a very satisfactory rate. The revenue in 1884 was £24,958, and the expenditure £29,482, against £28,952 and £23,878 respectively in the previous year.

The total population of the whole of the settlements on the River Gambia in 1881 was 14,150, 7215 males and 6935 females.

THE GOLD COAST.

THE Gold Coast consists of that part of the West Coast of Africa situate between 5° and 6° N. lat., and extending from about 3° W. long. to 1° E.; the extreme points are Newtown on the west, Danoe on the east. Beyond the western boundary is the French Protectorate of Grand Bassam and Assinee, beyond the eastern the small stretch of coast lately placed under German protection. The boundaries of the Colony towards the interior are not very clearly defined; between the parallels, however, of 1° and 2° of W. long. the two branches of the Prah form the boundary, the kingdom of Ashantee lying beyond. It will be observed, on looking at a map of the Gold Coast Colony, that it is divided into two nearly equal parts by the River Prah, which from its junction with the Ofini flows in a southerly direction to the sea. To the east of the river the country is inhabited by a number of tribes, the principal of which are those of Akim, Assin, Fanti, Agoona, Accra, Adaugene, Krobo and Akuamu; to the west are situated the districts of Deukera, Wassaw, Ahanta, Aowin, Amanahea, Apollonia, &c.

The area of the Gold Coast is approximately 16,620 square miles. No proper returns as to population are attempted; the estimate of 400,000 has been handed down as a legacy from the time of the imposition of the Poll Tax in 1852.

The Gold Coast has been known to Europeans for several centuries, the fame of its wealth in gold attracting adventurers as far back as the latter half of the fourteenth century, the first comers being from France. A company was formed at Rouen in 1366 to trade with West Africa, and in 1380 one of their vessels reached the coast beyond Cape Three Points, returning to Dieppe after an absence of nine months, with a considerable amount of gold and merchandise. This voyage was followed by others, and in 1383 an establishment was formed on shore, at La Mine, now called Elmina; large stores were erected with towers and batteries to protect them, as also a church, which in part remains to the present time. The trade however dwindled, and died out finally between 1460 and 1470.

The Portuguese first appeared on the Gold Coast in 1465, their great navigators having discovered Cape Verde Islands, with the part of Africa adjacent, early in the same century. They met with considerable success, gold being found in abundance. About 1480 they regularly established themselves at Accra, and four years later at Elmina, occupying the fort that had been abandoned by the French, and calling it St. George d'Elmina. A company was formed at Lisbon, to which a monopoly to trade on the Gold Coast was granted. Its agents built the fort of St. Anthony at Axim, and established their trade at other places. For more than a century they exercised an influence over the natives that amounted almost to sovereignty, and the trade was entirely in their hands. Towards the end of the sixteenth century the French made an attempt to re-establish themselves, but without success.

It was not till 1595 that the Dutch reached the Gold Coast. The

Portuguese by their cruelty and injustice to the natives had made themselves hated, and the new-comers were therefore heartily welcomed. They settled at Cape Coast, where they built a fort; the Portuguese made every attempt to dislodge them, but without success. At last, in July, 1637, the Dutch Government having dispatched a powerful expedition, a strong force was landed, and the hill of St. Iago forthwith carried; cannon were then placed there to command the castle of St. George, and the Portuguese surrendered. Their stronghold gone, they shortly afterwards left the coast, and retired to St. Thomas.

The Dutch retained possession of most of the points they occupied till 1868, when all their forts east of the Sweet River were exchanged for ones west of it, and in 1871 they ceded to Great Britain all their Gold Coast possessions.

The English trade with the Gold Coast, the exact date of the opening of which it is difficult to fix, was commenced by independent adventurers, probably from Bristol, in the middle of the sixteenth century. Later on James I. encouraged it, and in 1662 the Royal Company of Adventurers was founded. On war breaking out between England and Holland, the English attacked and captured Fort Witsen Secondu and Cape Coast Castle, and took possession of other places; they were not allowed, however, to retain them long, the celebrated Admiral de Ruyter appeared on the scene, and Cape Coast was the only place that successfully resisted his attack. The Company was dissolved in 1667, owing to the reverses it had met with at the hands of the Dutch. Five years later, the Royal African Company was formed, and factories were erected at different points between Dixcove and Accra, forts being added to enable the agents to contend successfully with the Dutch. In 1750 their charter was withdrawn and their stations handed over to the African Company of Merchants. The rivalry with the Dutch had in the meantime continued, and fighting was continually going on between the two nations, the English as a rule getting the best of it. At last, in 1782, peace was restored.

The parliamentary grants to the company had been large, increasing from an average of £13,500 for the years 1750 to 1807 to £23,000 for those subsequent to the latter date. Owing probably to this fact, in 1821 the Government of the day decided to take over the forts and settlements, and they were placed under the Government of Sierra Leone. On the advice of the Governor, Sir Charles McCarthy, only Cape Coast, Anamaboc, Dixcove and Accra were retained. Three years later war broke out with Ashantee, heavy expenses were incurred, trade declined, and the Government were glad enough to hand over again to individuals the administration, this time to a Committee of Merchants. A grant of £4,000 was made them from the Imperial exchequer. In 1827 Mr. Maclean was appointed Governor, and he, by extreme judgment and tact, by a keen sense of justice and straightforward treatment of the natives, made our name universally respected; his administration was in every way a success, peace was preserved unbroken during the seventeen years he was on the coast, and the petty wars which had constantly been waged between the various tribes entirely ceased. However, on the recommendation of a Committee of the House of Commons, the Gold Coast, in 1842, was for the second time transferred to the Crown, and constituted a dependency of Sierra Leone.

In January, 1868, as has already been stated, its territory was defined by a convention with the Dutch; a line drawn due north from the mouth of the Sweet river to the Ashantee frontier with slight deviations was the boundary line; all places in the hands of the Dutch to the east of this line were given up to the British, while we surrendered to Holland all to the west. This interchange of territory was not carried out without bloodshed, and on that account did not work well; the English Government, accordingly, in exchange for concessions made to Holland in the east, took over the whole of the Dutch possessions in 1872.

The Danes occupied Christiansborg Castle at Accra and the fort of Quittah for nearly two centuries. These forts were sold to the English in 1850.

Of the various tribes of the Colony the best known are the Fantis. In the wars that were so often waged between the English and the Dutch they were invariably our allies, the Ashantees ranging themselves on the side of the Dutch. No account of the Gold Coast would be complete without some reference to Ashantee and the incursions that warlike tribe have made from time to time on the Coast districts. The Ashantees as well as the tribes of the Colony are doubtless the descendants of races that inhabited Central Africa to the north. The Moors having failed to gain a footing in Europe, turned to Africa and drove the inhabitants of the various districts they invaded southward toward the coast. Thus the Mahomedan kingdoms on the Niger were formed, and the country as far south as Gaman was subdued. Reference has already been made to the wars that were waged between the Dutch and Ashantees on the one side, and the Fantis and ourselves on the other. It would be out of place in this short account of the Gold Coast to trace their history; suffice it to say that the Ashantees at all times possessed a powerful army, and invariably kept the tribes around them in a state of awe, even when they were not actually tributary. They have been at times virtually masters of all the soil between their country and the sea. It was not till the war of 1873 that their power was broken. They invaded the Coast districts in 1807, at which date the various forts were in the hands of the African Company of Merchants; and for seventeen years the King of Ashantee was as much sovereign on the coast as in the interior. Various outbreaks on the part of the Fantis led to fresh invasions, until at length the country was nearly depopulated, and towns and villages were in ruins. At last the English actively espoused the cause of the Fantis, and on the 26th of August, 1824, put a stop to this state of things by severely defeating the Ashantees at Doondowah, thus avenging the death of Sir Charles McCarthy and the annihilation of his gallant force that had taken place a few months previously at Assamacow.

Governor Maclean's administration has been referred to. In 1831 he succeeded in obtaining a treaty from the Ashantees, by which they relinquished all claims to sovereignty over Apollonia, Ahanta, Wassaw, Fanti, Assin, Akim, Akuapim and Deukera, these districts being placed under British protection.

In 1863, during Mr. Richard Pine's governorship, the Coast was again invaded by the Ashantees, the cause of quarrel being that a slave of Quacoe Duah's had stolen some gold, and flying for refuge to Cape Coast, the Governor had not surrendered him. The authorities were only feebly supported by the Home Government. A few staff officers were sent out,

and some additional companies of West India troops. The Ashantees ravaged the country, but on the approach of our troops withdrew.

The Ashantee invasion of January, 1873, was indirectly caused by the transfer of the Dutch possessions to the British in the preceding April, though the motives given for it were various. The Ashantee army met the Fanti allies at Dunquah in April, and again at Jouquah in June, and on both occasions were successful; they were, however, defeated before Elmina Castle by the seamen and marines of the fleet in conjunction with the colonial forces. The war after this languished for some time. In the meantime, however, a decisive course of action was decided on. Sir John Glover, G.C.M.G., was deputed to organise the tribes in the eastern districts of the Protectorate, for a flank movement against the Ashantee territory. Sir Garnet Wolseley was despatched to the coast with a numerous and distinguished staff, and, on his recommendation, three battalions of English troops were sent out. An advance in force was made, with the result that a decisive action was fought at Amoaful the 20th January, 1874, and after more or less continuous fighting, Coomassie was entered the 4th February. Abortive negotiations were opened with the king. Sir Garnet Wolseley, however, commenced his march to the coast on the 6th, the Engineers firing the city as the troops marched out. A treaty of peace was subsequently signed at Fommanah, by which the King of Ashantee renounced all claim to the Protectorate, promised to protect traders, abandon human sacrifices, keep up a good road to the Prah, and pay an indemnity of 50,000 ozs. of gold to the Queen.

The chief article of export from the Gold Coast is palm oil, the trade in which has only sprung up during the present century. Palm oil is chiefly used in the manufacture of soap and candles. It is produced from the outer husk of the nut of the *Elais guineensis*, the kernel of which is also an important article of export. The nuts are placed in a large mortar built of stones and pounded with sharp-pointed stakes to separate the husks; these are then put into an earthen pot with water and boiled, and the oil rising to the top is skimmed off and put into separate vessels.

The value exported in 1838 was only £7,350; and its development will be seen by the following figures, which show the quantities exported for the eight years 1875 to 1882—

	£		£
1875 . .	222,594	1879 . .	280,725
1876 . .	305,999	1880 . .	307,114
1877 . .	260,087	1881 . .	230,572
1878 . .	293,247	1882 . .	178,508

The trade in palm kernels now reaches a large figure, it has sprung up entirely within the last twenty years. An oil is extracted from them that is used for various purposes; from the residue left after the oil is obtained, oil cake is manufactured. Marseilles is one of the chief ports to which palm kernels are shipped, there are large crushing mills there; there is also a large trade in them with Hamburg.

Prices for palm kernels vary from £8 to £15 a ton, according to quality and state of market, and the following show the values of the exports for years 1875 to 1882:—

Year	£	Year	£
1875 . .	47,252	1879 . .	53,115
1876 . .	67,645	1880 . .	101,666
1877 . .	62,625	1881 . .	47,508
1878 . .	48,708	1882 . .	50,317

A considerable trade has of late been developed in rubber, and there is every hope of a further increase in it. Only 64 cwt. was shipped in 1882, 414 in 1883, and in 1884 the quantity was increased to 1,552 cwt., of the value of £13,139.

Other articles of export are ivory, gum, cotton, monkey skins, camwood, Guinea grains; but the quantities shipped are inconsiderable.

The principal articles of import are cotton and silk goods, beads, spirits, guns, tobacco, cutlery, brass and copper rods.

The revenue of the Gold Coast Colony is almost entirely raised from import duties. They consist of specific duties of 2*s.* 6*d.* per O. W. gallon on spirits, 6*d.* per lb. on tobacco, 6*d.* per lb. on gunpowder, 2*s.* 6*d.* on every gun, 6*d.* per gallon on beer and wines, and an *ad valorem* duty of 4 per cent. on other articles, cottons, cutlery, &c. The revenue now exceeds £100,000 per annum. Fully half the expenditure goes in the payment of fixed salaries; on this head four times the amount is spent than was the case ten years ago.

In 1881 an exceptional expenditure was incurred of over £40,000 in connection with the threatened invasion by the Ashantees. There is a constabulary Houssa force maintained, at a cost in 1881 of £26,659, consisting of 24 officers, 86 non-commissioned officers, and nearly 1,000 men.

The only military station is Cape Coast Castle, the ordinary garrison being merely two companies of West India troops, say 200 all told.

The amount expended by Great Britain on this head was £12,621 in 1880, £26,120 in 1881. In the latter year, owing to threatened attack by Ashantee, the garrison was raised 10th May to 803 officers and men.

Gold was what was sought by the first traders to the Gold Coast, and reference has been made to the establishments formed by the various nations of Europe and the expeditions fitted out for the obtaining of it. It is difficult to compute the quantities of gold that have been exported from the Gold Coast at different periods. Bosman, who wrote early in the eighteenth century, and is considered one of the most reliable writers on Africa, estimated the annual export in peaceable times at 7,000 marks, or over £200,000.

That the Portuguese and French in the fourteenth and fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were able to obtain considerable quantities of gold has already been inferred. Then in all probability, as now, gold was the medium of exchange, and the possession of it the mark of wealth.

In 1817 the Committee on African forts estimated the amount produced at 100,000 ozs. a year. For five years previously to June, 1834, the exports from Cape Coast averaged 18,226 ozs., or £70,000 a year. For the ten years, 1831–40, the trade was principally for gold dust, the quantity of palm oil exported being quite inconsiderable. Mr. Forster, in giving evidence before the Committee of 1842, said to the best of his belief the quantity exported had increased 30 per cent. the previous four or five years, and that for the last period, probably for the year 1840, the amount reached £95,000.

The amount of gold imported into this country from the Gold Coast since the beginning of the century may be computed at, at the least, 5½ millions. It is not unlikely Europe, from this source, has altogether obtained 30 to 40 millions.

That the natives should have obtained such quantities as they have done is remarkable, and shows conclusively how rich in gold the country is. The method of working is very simple. A small shaft is sunk; on the ore bed a rough windlass is fitted up; the tools employed, as may be imagined, being of the rudest kind. As the ore is brought to the surface the women grind it between two stones, much in the way they grind their corn, and the gold is extracted by the careful washing of the powdered ore in calabashes; the women are very expert at this process of washing, the sand is kept continually in motion, the lighter portions are thrown away, and the gold with particles of iron ore alone is left at the bottom of the bowl. In addition to the gold obtained in this way from lodes and veins, sand from the beds of streams is often treated and satisfactory results obtained.

The principal districts from which gold is obtained are Deukera, Wassaw, Ahanta, and some parts of Akim within the Protectorate, but the chief source from which it has come is Ashantee; very likely some of this may in the first instance have come from the Protectorate, the Fantis having received slaves in exchange; still there must be rich mines in the interior; in Gaman they are known to exist.

Until the last four or five years no mining by Europeans or with European capital had been carried on. The Dutch attempted it in the district of Wassaw some forty years back, but from various causes were unsuccessful.

Slavery.—There is no doubt that the demand for labour in the recently discovered Continent of America, to replace the native population that disappeared under the cruel Spanish yoke, had a great effect in opening up the trade of West Africa.

The middle of the 17th century marked the opening of the slave-trade; the exportation of slaves had existed on the coast between Senegal and Sierra Leone some years before it was introduced on the Gold Coast. In a very short space of time it had attained gigantic proportions between Cape Coast Castle and Whydah, and at the latter place it was no uncommon thing to see six or seven ships at a time anchored off, ready to receive their living freight. It required some time after the Act abolishing the trade was passed, in 1807, to entirely suppress it even on the Gold Coast, and at Whydah slaves were shipped off as late as 1860.

Apart from the horrors that resulted from the capture and shipment of the unfortunate creatures, the trade had a serious economic effect. Slaves were exchanged for goods, and there was not the incentive that now exists to cultivate the oil-palm, and collect other produce. The population, too, was much thinned, and that would again reduce the supply of productive labour.

But in addition to the export trade in slaves, domestic slavery existed on the Gold Coast, and that from time immemorial; it was only in 1874 that the right of holding slaves was abolished.

The slave population consisted partly of native-born slaves, and partly of Donkos, purchased from Ashantee importers. On the latter the burden

of the labour of the country chiefly fell. They were considered an inferior race, with whom it was thought derogatory to intermarry. Cruickshank states in his book on the Gold Coast that they were very inferior, as a race, to the Fantees.

The condition of slavery was not in every case, or even as a rule, one of hardship. The social traditions of the people favoured the institution; the great power the head of a family possessed over its members conduced to it, as did the nature of the marriage rite and the law of debt, whereby the debtor unable to pay his creditor had to work for him until he was in a position to do so. A large retinue added prestige to a chief, so that in many cases the slave did not devote his time to actual work, but merely appeared as attendant to his master. The power of the head of a family or tribe doubtless arose from the need of protection for the individual in an uncivilised country, thus the smaller chiefs were constantly led to put themselves under the protection of the more powerful. As to the marriage rite having an enslaving tendency, the wife stood as a pawn or pledge for the money paid by her husband at the time of marriage, so that in the event of her death the money had to be repaid him by her family, and in that of his, she belonged to his successor.

The custom of pawning the labour of a child or slave in consideration of a debt, doubtless led to great cruelty and hardship. To obtain a loan or pay a debt, a man did not hesitate to place one or more of his family or slaves in temporary bondage. In the case of the loan, the money had to be paid with a heavy rate of interest before the pawn was released, his labour in the meantime not being taken into account. Slaves, as has already been inferred, were often well enough treated, and many instances may be cited of their being allowed to acquire property of their own and becoming wealthy. It was the interest of the chief, whose power in a great measure consisted in the number of his retainers, to satisfy those around him; it was often possible, too, in the case of wrong being done a man, or his being ill-treated by a chief or headman, to enlist the sympathies of another chief, owing allegiance to the same master, on his behalf.

Fetishism.—That the natives have a certain belief in a Supreme Being is shown by the presence of such words in the Fantee language as *Yankompon*, "Great Friend," and *Yammie*, "Make me." The Creator is supposed, in compassion to the human race, to have endowed various objects with the attributes of deity, and each man is free to choose his own object of worship. To this he has recourse in trouble; he makes offerings to it, and sacrifices fowls, goats, and sheep in its honour.

Worked up into frenzy, the worshipper believes in revelations from the idol, and is thus led to the performance of absurd intercessory rites. The idol of the individual is called "Sonman." There is also the family or tribal fetish, "Boossum." Recourse to this is had in times of trouble through its priest "sofoo." Individuals when in trouble do not confine themselves to one idol, they will consult several, all probably objects they see around them; it may be a river, a hill, the sea, anything, in fact, that may occur to them. Priests would pound up the substance of what they call "boossum," and administer it, at the same time enjoining on the worshipper to abstain from particular kinds of food.

The belief in evil spirits is general, also that in man there is a spirit

that survives the body; and though there is no definite idea of punishment for sin done in the body, there is a saying in reference to a great criminal, that he will die a second death in the other world.

They are accustomed to bury quantities of gold, cloths, &c. with the dead, and even go as far as to place at his hand a flask of rum, a pipe and tobacco. Slaves, too, were sacrificed, and still are, as is well known, in Dahomey. All this denotes a belief that the conditions of the future life do not materially differ from this.

There is a strong belief in witchcraft, the discovery being chiefly left to the fetishmen. Appeals, too, are occasionally made to the fetishmen to be relieved from the imputation of it. Witchcraft must be rapidly dying out on the Coast; obviously the punishment of a person on a charge of this sort would not be allowed. The power generally of the fetish priests is rapidly waning, though even only a few months ago the cracking of the palm-nuts to obtain the kernels was forbidden in a particular district, because of an outbreak of smallpox of which the cracking of the nuts was alleged to be the cause. War is not entered on without the fetish being first consulted, and failure is usually attributed to neglect of it. Treaties are not entered into without some observance ordained by the fetish. General feasts are observed at certain seasons, offerings of the first-fruits of harvest are made, gods of the sea are propitiated. For judicial purposes the Colony is divided into districts, with a Commissioner possessed of magisterial powers in each; there is always the right of appeal to the Supreme Court. In districts away from the Coast, disputes between natives are for the most part settled before native tribunals, and according to native law; there is, however, always the right of appeal.

LAGOS.

Lagos, situated on the Bight of Benin, was in former times the head-quarters of the slave trade, a circumstance which led to its occupation by a British force. In 1861, Docemo the king ceded to Great Britain the Island and Port of Lagos. The king continued to reside at Lagos, with a pension of £1000 a year, until his death, which took place last year (1885). At first the Settlements of Lagos were erected into a separate Government. In 1866 they were amalgamated with the West Coast of Africa Settlements under the Government of Sierra Leone.

After the Ashanti war in 1874, the Gold Coast Settlements were by charter erected into the Gold Coast Colony, and by that charter Lagos was amalgamated with it.

In the present year Lagos has been separated from the Gold Coast, with a constitution of its own. The Colony now includes Badagry on the west, and adjoining Dahomey; Lagos Island, lying among lagoons in the centre; and Palma and Leckie on the east.

The waters of Lagos, which are entered by a somewhat dangerous bar, constitute the only safe harbour along 600 miles of coast.

The principal native industries are cloths, and embroidered robes

called "Tobes," worn by Mahommedans, grass cloths and mats, basket-work, bamboo and other furniture; leather work in sandals, leggings, sword and dagger sheaths, as well as the water-pots and other articles made of hides. They also manufacture brass pots, jugs, basins, &c.

The principal products of the Colony are seeds, peppers, lentils, nuts, oil, cotton and silk.

The prevailing language of the settlement is the Yoruba.

BRITISH SHERBRO.

BRITISH SHERBRO was ceded by the natives to the English in 1862, being taken over by His Excellency Sir Stephen John Hill, the Governor of the West African Settlements at that time. It lies about 100 miles to the south-east of Sierra Leone. Until very recently British jurisdiction extended over a very limited area, but in 1883 Governor Sir Arthur E. Havelock concluded a treaty with several of the most influential chiefs, whereby a considerable and important tract of land, extending to and including one side of the Casseh Lake, and also the coast line from Lavannah to the Liberian border, was handed over to the Government. About 80 miles from Sierra Leone various islands open up, and these islands, beginning with the Turtle Islands, which are opposite to the mainland about 12 miles, form the commencement of the fine though short Sherbro River, which continuing its course in the form of a semi-circle, finds an outlet by a dangerous reef, known as the Shea Bar. The Sherbro is navigable for large vessels for a distance of some 25 miles, the anchorage being off York Island; the remaining part of the river is chiefly a collection of sand banks, rendering navigation by small boats otherwise than at high water a matter of difficulty and danger. The Government quarters are situated at Bonthe, which is upon Sherbro Island, about 4 miles distant from York Island. The river is infested with alligators, which at times become so voracious that they frequently, upon landing, give chase to men, women, and children; they have also been known to take small children out of a canoe when engaged in propelling it. There are many other rivers which flow into the Sherbro, noticeably the Boom, Kittam, Gbargroo, Iong, and Black River. All along the banks of the Sherbro River are dense mangrove trees penetrating inland for a considerable distance; nothing meets the eye but this fever-propagating vegetation, at low tide emitting that treacherous malaria which has caused, and still causes, such havoc amongst the white population. The Sherbro River may be summed up as being one vast mangrove swamp; but, unhealthy as it undoubtedly is, it is an interesting and peculiar fact that in the two epidemics of yellow fever which decimated Sierra Leone in 1872 and 1884 Sherbro, though in such close proximity, was in no way affected. The principal products of the Sherbro are palm-oil, palm-kernels, bennie seed, chillies and camwood, which are exported to Europe. Rice is abundantly grown for local consumption only, and is preferred to the American and Indian rices as having greater nutritive properties.

The palm-tree, which abounds almost everywhere, is a source of wealth

to the natives, producing naturally, without the slightest cultivation on the part of the people, a crop of palm nuts twice a year. The nuts grow in luxuriant clusters, and when ripe a native proceeds to ascend the tree by means of a "cane climber," which he passes round the trunk of the tree and his body, leaning backward, and firmly planting his feet against the trunk by a series of continuous jerks, he quickly reaches the top, when with a knife carried in his mouth he severs the bunches, which fall to the ground. The nuts are picked away from the bunch, leaving a honeycombed casing. Covering the nut is a thin oleaginous fibrous substance, from which palm oil is extracted in the most primitive manner. The nut covered with the residuous matter is then placed in the sun to dry, after which it is cracked and the kernel removed. There being no machinery of any kind, every single nut is cracked by hand between two small stones. The laboriousness of this work will be better understood when it is stated that to crack a bushel of nuts is considered a heavy day's work for one person, and that some 10,000 tons of these kernels are exported yearly. The peculiarity of the palm tree is that it produces two distinct kinds of oil—palm oil, which is a reddish yellow colour, and palm kernel oil, which is white. Many different tribes are to be found in the Sherbro, amongst others the Timnies, Mendis, Cossohs, Sherbros, Soosos and Sierra Leonians. All are greatly imbued with superstition; even the latter, though openly professing Christianity, still cling to a large extent to their inherited heathen doctrines and practices. The cotton tree and the alligator are the principal objects of fetish, it being currently believed that the latter are deceased persons. There are two missionary societies represented in Sherbro, that of the Native Pastorate Association, whose head centre is at Sierra Leone, and an American Mission called the (Mendi) Shaingay Mission, which, by penetrating more into the country by means of itinerant native preachers, is doing very excellent work. Locomotion in the Sherbro is carried on by boats, travelling inland being done by hammock.

The Boom Kittam river runs into the Sherbro at Alligator Creek, and the newly ceded territory may be said to commence a short distance up this river, with Chief Tucker's land by Mogumboe. The river flows on for a distance of some 40 miles, when the junction of the Big Boom river and the Kittam, known as the Boom Bar mouth, is reached; the former running to the left and passing the towns of Barmany, Tormah, Gbamba, Commendi, and on into the Bompeh country, the Kittam continuing its course by Camalay, Koronko, Kalleh and Tay, and through a short and narrow channel to the right into the Casseh Lake, at the extreme end of which is Lavannah. Proceeding along the river instead of turning into the Casseh Lake Channel, the Kittam becomes known as the Upper Kittam, and it flows on for a considerable distance into the Krim country, which is entirely under the control of various native chiefs, who have been waging war against each other uninterruptedly for the past five years. The river has been blockaded, and the trade completely stopped during this time, though happily there are now signs of a cessation of hostilities, when the roads in the interior will be re-opened, so that produce can once more be sent down to the water side for transmission by canoes to the Sherbro.

Outside British jurisdiction in the Upper Kittam are the fortified towns of Sarmah and Messimah. The latter was nearly demolished by fire during the war, a few months ago, but is now being rebuilt; there is also Chief

Fahwoondoo's strongly fortified town of Mannoh in the Casseh Lake. The fortifications consist of several strong and high rudely made post-fences (generally from three to five), distant about 12 feet from one another, which surround the town, and for the style of warfare peculiar to the natives are almost impregnable. The huts within the barricade are built of wattels and plastered with a kind of mud-clay and having a bamboo roofing. Always in the most conspicuous parts of the huts may be observed objects of fetish, and in the towns it is impossible to walk the shortest distance without encountering Saraka (fetish) in some form or other, even the trees in many instances being decorated with large stones hanging from the boughs, all of which have some mystic meaning.

A peculiarity with the great chiefs is that they never undertake any matter of importance without first consulting their "Medicine Man," or Mori Man, as he is termed; he therefore accompanies them upon all occasions. The chiefs as a rule, however, if judiciously handled are very tractable and amenable to reason.

The Gbargroo River, which runs into the Sherbro opposite "Jamaica," is a really noble river, and is navigable for small vessels of light draught up to Tasso, about 35 miles from the mouth, and by boats up to Conkonani, a further 10 miles. The Gbamgbia and Manoh Rivers flow into it on the right, the former leading up to the town from which it takes its name, distant about 20 miles, the latter noticeable from the Mendi Mission having a station there, and also a sawmill worked by water power, from which they supply nearly all Sherbro with well-sawn timber.

If only the native chiefs could be brought to see the necessity of desisting from the petty tribal feuds which beset the country, there is little doubt that the Sherbro would before long take a very prominent position in Western Africa.*

NIGER.

The protectorate over the Niger Delta, stretching from the Rio del Rey to the Benin River, was assumed in July, 1884, treaties of protection with all the principal chiefs being made by Consul Hewett. A number of vice-consuls have been appointed to assist Mr. Hewett in controlling the protectorate. The enormous trade of the district is almost entirely in the hands of the National African Company, of which Lord Aberdare is chairman.

GEOGRAPHY.

THE West African Settlements consist of Sierra Leone, British Sherbro, some small settlements on the river Gambia to the north of Sierra Leone, the settlements on the Gold Coast, and Lagos.

Sierra Leone is a peninsula on the coast of Senegambia, terminating in Cape Sierra Leone, and bounded on the north by a river of the same name.

* From a Report sent to Sir James Marshall by Mr. T. J. Alldridge, of Sherbro.

The settlement is 18 miles long by 12 broad, and has an area of 300 square miles. The surface is mountainous and well wooded, the high grounds being covered to their summits by lofty forest trees, but interspersed are many fertile valleys and meadows. The capital is Freetown, at the northern extremity of the peninsula, and there are numerous villages scattered over the whole territory. The Isles de Los, about 60 miles to the northward of Sierra Leone, belong to Great Britain, and are used as a trading station.

British Sherbro' consists of a large island some 50 miles in length, at the mouth of a navigable river called the Sherbro', with a long strip of territory on the coast of the adjoining mainland.

The settlements on the Gambia, which comprise the Colony of that name, consist of the Island of St. Mary's, British Combo, Albreda, the Ceded Mile—at the mouth of the river—and M'Carthy's Island. The latter island, which is situated in the Gambia, about 187 miles from its mouth, has an area of 3 square miles.

St. Mary's Island, on which is Bathurst, the most considerable place in the Colony, is a mere sandbank, some three and a half miles long by one and a quarter broad, a large portion of which is covered by a swamp. It is separated from the mainland by a narrow channel, called Oyster Creek.

The Gold Coast is the name given to a portion of Upper Guinea between 5° west longitude and 2° east longitude. The western part has an undulating surface, with a bold and rocky front next the sea. But most of the territory consists of open plains, in some places covered with tall grass, and in others with forest trees. In this portion the shores are flat and sandy, and the whole coast is devoid of harbours.

The rivers on the Gold Coast are for the most part very small, but the Prah, the Tando, and the Volta are considerable streams.

The principal settlement is known as Cape Coast Castle, which consists of a fortress, with a large native town adjacent. This place is the seat of Government. Other settlements are Elmina, Secondee, Dixcove and Axim, to the west of Cape Coast Castle; and Anamaboe, Winnebah, Accra, Addah and Quittah, to the east of it—all on the coast; with Akropong and Prahsue a short distance inland.

A considerable tract of country lying behind the forts is under British protection.

Lagos consists of the island of that name, with Badagry to the west, and Palma and Leckie to the east of it. All these places are situated on what is known as the Slave Coast, and between 2° and 5° east longitude. The island of Lagos is at the entrance to a considerable inlet, which, albeit difficult of access by reason of a bar at its mouth, forms the only safe harbour along some 600 miles of coast. A strip of territory extending from the entrance to Lake Denham to the Benin River is under British protection.

GIBRALTAR.

GOVERNOR,
LIEUTENANT-GENERAL SIR J. M. ADYE, R.A G.C.B.

COLONIAL SECRETARY,
LORD GIFFORD, V.C.

TREASURER AND COLLECTOR OF REVENUES,
M. CAMPBELL.

CAPTAIN OF THE PORT,
COMMANDER F. BAKER, R.N.

CHIEF JUSTICE AND JUDGE OF VICE ADMIRALTY,
SIR H. J. B. BURFORD HANCOCK.

GIBRALTAR.

THE Rock of Gibraltar, the Mons Calpe of the ancients, is situated at the southern extremity of the Spanish province of Andalusia, at the entrance from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean Sea, on a Strait about 15 miles wide. The territory consists of an elevated promontory 2¾ miles long, running in a southerly direction, with an extreme width of ¾ of a mile, and its highest point 1,439 feet above sea level. On one side this promontory forms the Bay of Gibraltar, which is about 8 miles long and 4 or 5 miles across, affording good anchorage for shipping passing through the Straits; and on the other side, which is an inaccessible precipice, is the Mediterranean Sea. The chief fortifications are on the west front—the other sides from their shape bidding complete defiance to attack. Gibraltar, which is deemed an impregnable fortress, owes its chief importance to the fact of its being the key to the Mediterranean, over the mouth of which it has absolute command. A strong military garrison is maintained, the whole expense of which is borne by the Imperial Government.

Gibraltar has a very eventful history, mostly owing to the struggles for its possession on account of its value from a military point of view. The name, which is formed from the Arabic, *gibel al Tarif*, signifies the height, or rock of Tarif, as Tarif Abenzaca, the general of the caliph Walid, at the period of the irruption of the Arabs into Spain (A.D. 711) landed at the foot of this rock and took the town of Heraclea. Gibraltar was taken from the Arabians by Ferdinand, King of Castile, in 1302, but they retook it in 1333 and held it until 1462, when Henry IV. of Castile captured it. On the 24th July, 1704, it was taken from the Spaniards by the British under Admiral Sir George Rooke, and has remained in the hands of the English ever since, notwithstanding several determined attempts on the part of the Spaniards and French to capture it. In 1713 it was formally ceded to England by the Treaty of Utrecht, but for some years after the Spaniards endeavoured to cut off all communication with the rock from the land side; provisions were, however, conveyed by water, so their efforts to starve the garrison proved ineffectual. In 1779 the fortress was besieged by the Spaniards and French, and on the 27th of November, 1781, occurred that memorable attack in which General Elliott burnt the whole of the enemy's floating batteries by firing red-hot balls into them, and caused an estimated loss of £2,000,000. In 1783 the fortress was blockaded, and for weeks together 6,000 shells were thrown into the town daily. From that time no important attempt has been made to take it.

The town of Gibraltar stands at the foot of the promontory on the north-west side: its inhabitants are very much crowded, the population being at the rate of 60,000 to the square mile. It is, however, very healthy,

being well drained and having a good water supply. A picturesque garden, called the Alameda, separates the two portions of the town.

Gibraltar is much used by shipping as a port of call, and is also an entrepôt of the trade between England and the Arabian States of North Africa, for which it has great advantages, having been a free port since its occupation by the English. This trade, however, has much declined since the introduction of steam-vessels, and its chief importance now is as a coaling station and a place of protection for the mercantile marine trading with the Mediterranean, Spain, and Morocco.

The town is fortified, but it derives its chief protection from the batteries on the neighbouring heights, which sweep both the isthmus and the approach to the town by water. At the time of the last siege it was almost entirely destroyed, but was rebuilt on an improved and enlarged plan. The houses are painted black to deaden the dazzling rays of the sun, and have bow windows and flat roofs, and white stripes painted across them to indicate the different floors. One large street nearly half a mile in length traverses the whole town, and is full of shops

The Governor, who is also in command of the garrison, exercises all the functions of Government and legislation, and there is no Executive or Legislative Council.

During the year 1884, 6,146 vessels were entered with a tonnage of 4,610,629 tons, and 6068 cleared with a tonnage of 4,609,280 tons.

The chief sources of revenue are port dues, rent of the Crown Estate in the town, duties on wine, spirits, and beer, and a few licence duties.

The revenue and expenditure for the last five years were as follows :—

	Revenue. £	Expenditure. £
1880	44,848	45,868
1881	44,399	49,972
1882	45,882	54,888
1883	48,335	52,681
1884	45,905	51,135

According to the census of 1881, the total population of Gibraltar, exclusive of military, was 18,381, which includes British, Spaniards, Italians, Jews, and even Moors. The military population numbers about 5,000.

There is one Church of England, and one Roman Catholic place of worship in the Colony, each receiving a Government grant of £500 a-year; and 16 schools, with 1977 scholars, exclusive of the military schools, and all are Government aided. The town has four daily and one bi-weekly newspapers.

GEOGRAPHY.

GIBRALTAR consists of a high rocky promontory at the southern extremity of Spain, forming one side of a bay, called the Bay of Gibraltar. This promontory, which is 2¾ miles in length by ¾ of a mile in breadth at its widest part, is joined to the mainland by a flat, sandy isthmus, protected by strong fortifications. The southern extremity of the promontory, at the

eastern end of the Strait of Gibraltar, is known as Europa Point. The north and east sides of the Rock of Gibraltar are almost inaccessible precipices, the south and west fall towards the sea more gradually, with occasional flats and terraces. The highest point has an altitude of 1,439 feet. The larger portion of the town of Gibraltar is on the northern part of the west slope of the Rock; the two portions being separated by a public garden called the Alameda.

Advantage has been taken of its natural configuration to render Gibraltar one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and perhaps in the world. It is moreover an important naval station, a packet station and a centre of trade for the Mediterranean and the northern coasts of the African Continent. The Bay of Gibraltar, between 4 and 5 miles across, affords good anchorage and shelter to vessels passing through the Straits. On the side of this bay opposite to Gibraltar is the Spanish town of Algeciras, while farther to the south-west is Tarifa, a fortified town at the most southerly point of the European Continent.

MALTA.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER OF THE TROOPS,
GENERAL SIR JOHN LINTORN ARABIN SIMMONS, G.C.B.

MILITARY SECRETARY,
SIR C. LARCOM, BART., R.A.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR AND CHIEF SECRETARY TO GOVERNMENT,
HON. WALTER FRANCIS HELY-HUTCHINSON, C.M.G.

ASSISTANT SECRETARY AND CLERK TO COUNCIL,
E. DE PETRI.

AUDITOR-GENERAL AND DIRECTOR OF CONTRACTS,
HON. GEORGE COUSIN, M.D.

CHIEF JUSTICE AND PRESIDENT OF COURT OF APPEAL,
SIR ADRIANO DINGLI, G.C.M.G., C.B., LL.D.

PUISNE JUDGES.
HON. SIR S. NAUDI, HON. L. XUEREB, HON. P. VELLA.

CROWN ADVOCATE,
GIUSEPPE CARBONE, LL.D.

MALTA.

MALTA (known in olden times as Melita) is an island in the Mediterranean Sea, about 180 miles from Africa, and 58 miles from Sicily, in latitude 35° 54′ N., and 14° 31′ E. longitude. It is 17 miles long, 9 miles broad, and has an area of 95 square miles. Generally speaking Malta includes the smaller island of Gozo, which is separated from the main island by a strait four miles wide, and the rock Comino which lies between them. Gozo has an area of 20 square miles, and Comino 7 square miles. Malta possesses one of the finest harbours in the world. It is completely land-locked, and has such an even depth that ships can anchor close to the shore. It is capable of accommodating 500 vessels, and forms an excellent station for the Mediterranean Fleet, which makes this its headquarters. In addition to its harbour, Malta has an extensive arsenal and an important dockyard. On the north-east of the island the land is low, but to the south-west it rises precipitously more than 1,200 feet. The soil consists of a thin covering of earth on a soft calcareous rock, and the depth of the soil is increased by breaking up the surface of the rock into a sort of gravel and mixing it with the earth. There is no river or rivulet in Malta; the water supply is derived from springs found at the base of the Ben Gemma hills at the back of Citta Vecchia and connected by means of underground galleries, in some instances more than a mile in length, into the aqueduct constructed by Grand Master Vignacourt, of several thousand arches, and eight miles long, to Valetta.

These three islands, Malta, Gozo, and Comino, are spoken of at a very early date. The Phœnicians are stated by some authors to have settled in Malta and Gozo as early as B.C. 1519; but others fix the date at 1400 B.C. These two islands are described by Diodorus Siculus as most prosperous and important Phœnician colonies. The Carthaginians afterwards became the ruling power of the islands. During the Punic wars the Maltese Islands became alternately the property of the Carthaginians and the Romans, but were eventually occupied by the latter. It was during the Roman occupation that the shipwreck of St. Paul occurred. On the decline of the Roman Empire the island fell first to the lot of the Goths and then to the Saracens, who were in their turn expelled by Count Roger the Norman. It was under the supremacy of the House of Aragon from 1190 until the year 1530, when the Roman Emperor, Charles V., conferred it upon the Order of the Knights of St. John, who had been expelled from Rhodes by the Turks, and they held it for more than two centuries.

In 1798 Malta capitulated to Napoleon Bonaparte, who was on his way to Egypt. The Maltese, however, rose against their conquerors and compelled them to take refuge in the towns, where they closely blockaded

them for two years. At the end of that time they were reduced to great extremities and surrendered to a British force; the island being confirmed to Great Britain in 1814 by the Treaty of Paris.

Medina, the former capital of the island, now known as Citta Vecchia, is a handsome old town containing the ancient palace of the courts of justice, the cathedral, and the seminary: its rival and successor is Valetta, which was founded in 1566 by Lavalette, Grand Master of the Knights of Malta. It is remarkable for the magnificence of its buildings and the strength of its fortifications. The Church of St. John, the patron of the Order, is a fine building 240 feet long and 60 feet wide, and at one time contained great riches. The hotels of the Knights, corresponding with the eight languages into which the Order was divided, are now occupied by the British officers. The palace of the Grand Master is an extensive building, containing a fine armoury of ancient and modern weapons. The great Hospital afforded accommodation for 2,000 patients, who were attended by the Knights. The vessels in use were of solid silver.

The climate of Malta is hot during the day time, but this heat is tempered by a cool sea-breeze which always sets in at night. The three coldest months of the year are December, January, and February, during which the maximum temperature is about 61° Fahr., and the minimum about 53°; but during the hottest months, June to September, the maximum temperature is 82½° Fahr., and the minimum 73½°.

"The Government is administered by a Governor, advised and assisted by an Executive Council of six members. Legislation is carried on by a partly elective Council of Government originally constituted by Letters Patent of 11th May, 1849. The Council of Government consists of a president and 17 members, 9 official and 8 elected.

"The constituency, under the letters patent of 2nd March, 1883, amounts to 10,627, of whom probably 7,000 are illiterate. The qualification for a member of Council is the possession of immovable property of the clear value of £100 for twelve calendar months previous to election, or the payment of rent for immovable property to the annual value of £10 for twelve calendar months previous to election; or the payment of £40 a year for board and lodging, for the same period previous to election. The qualification for an elector is an income of £8 per annum, from immovable property, or payment of £4 rent per annum, besides a competent knowledge of the English and Italian languages, or, independently of the above, an income from immovable property of £6 per annum, or the payment of rent to the amount of £6 per annum for six calendar months before registration. The Council of Government, unless sooner dissolved, lasts five years. The Governor is *ex-officio* President and the Chief Secretary Vice-President of the Council of Government."

The extension of Malta Great Harbour, which was begun under the late Sir Gaspard Le Marchant, was completed in 1874, and the French creek handed over to the Admiralty authorities, and the merchant shipping transferred to the newly extended waters of the Marsa.

The two other most important works which have been effected (and one of which is still under construction) since the completion of the Harbour Works, are the Drainage Works, begun in 1879, and now completed, and the reorganisation of the Water Supply, which is still being carried out. Previous to 1879 the whole of the sewage and drainage of

Valetta and the three cities was carried into the harbour—it is now carried right out to sea, to a point from which it cannot possibly be brought back into the harbour—the entire system of house-drainage and sewage has, under the same scheme, been wholly remodelled, and what has been the admirable effect of these two great sanitary improvements the rates of mortality plainly show.

As to the water supply, it has been close upon *doubled* since 1867. At that date additional springs were found, and connected with the aqueduct, and in addition to this increased supply huge reservoirs have been excavated, so that the waste waters from the overflow of the aqueduct in rainy seasons has been now entrapped, an improvement by means of which the householders of Valetta will be enabled to have a house-to-house water supply—hitherto a dream in arid Malta—where a twenty years' average rate of rainfall would show seventeen to eighteen inches annually. These two great works of magnitude, and other hygienic improvements in the course of being carried out, have rendered Malta the healthiest spot in the Mediterranean as a winter resort.

Malta is highly cultivated, its chief products being cotton, corn, oranges and melons of an excellent quality, and potatoes, the early crops of which are exported to England. The vine is grown; figs are plentiful; and honey of a superior kind is produced.

It was estimated that in 1884 there were 49,376 acres in crop in the three islands, viz., 11,174 acres as gardens, 9,793 acres devoted to wheat, 2,910 acres barley, 2,748 acres beans and other pulse, 3,847 acres cotton, 446 acres sesamum, 1642 acres cumin seeds, 3,255 acres pasture land, and 8,341 acres forage.

The statement of live stock maintained on the islands during the same year was as follows:—5,329 horses, mules, and asses, 8,110 horned cattle, 11,150 sheep, and 6,007 goats.

The principal sources of revenue in Malta are:—

(1). Customs duties levied on cattle, grain (the tax on wheat being 10*s.* a quarter), oil, potatoes, seeds, vinegar, beer, spirits, wines, petroleum, and gunpowder: the total revenue from this source in 1884 being £121,419.

(2). Licences to sell alcoholic liquors, to follow the calling of a public auctioneer, to carry a gun for sporting purposes, and a licence upon public billiard tables.

(3). Fee of 1*s.* 6*d.* per day charged in the country for supply of water from the aqueduct. This represented £146,106 in 1884.

(4). Port Dues, which amounted in the same year to £1636; and Quarantine Dues.

(5). Land revenue.

The total revenue from all the above sources in 1884 was £212,569: the expenditure during that year being £80,606.

The total value of imports for 1884 was £13,343,789, and of exports £12,908,492; but the greater part of these were goods liable to duty which only touched at the port of Malta, and proceeded in the same bottoms.

During the above year, 5,381 vessels entered the port of Valetta, with a tonnage of 4,517,498 tons, and 5,388 vessels were cleared, their tonnage being 4,518,819.

Malta is connected with England, Port Said, India, and Cyprus by

the P. & O. steamers once a week; with Sicily and Italy twice a week; with Tunis, once a week by each of three lines of steamers; with Tripoli once a week by each of two lines; with Marseilles once a week by one line and twice a month by another; and with Naples twice a month.

The fortifications of Malta are some of the strongest in the world. In addition to five forts commanding the most important points there are lines of vast strength enclosing the various quarters, and forming works of such extent as to require 25,000 soldiers to man them, and 100,000 to invest the place completely. The capital, Valetta, is protected on three sides by water, and on the fourth by five lines of fortifications. The ditches, which are hewn out of the solid rock, are in some places ninety feet deep, and the ramparts are mostly formed in the same manner. The works are heavily mounted with artillery.

The population of the islands in December, 1883, was estimated at 156,675, viz., 77,084 males, and 79,591 females; about four-fifths of these are Maltese; of the remainder, half are British, and the rest Foreigners. There were in 1884, 5,979 births, 3,560 deaths, and 965 marriages.

The Maltese are of African origin, with a swarthy skin, hair somewhat frizzled, and nose rather flattened. They are industrious and frugal and very good seamen. The upper class speak Italian, but the language of the lower class is a patois compounded of Arabic, which is the fundamental part, German, Greek, Italian, and several other languages. Arabic however so far predominates that the peasants of Malta and Barbary can understand each other.

From an educational point of view Malta is well provided, having a University and the Lyceum at Valetta, 4 infant schools, about 40 primary schools, and 2 secondary schools, all of which are Government aided, the grant in 1884 amounting to £15,894 16*s.* 7*d.*, besides which voluntary contributions were subscribed to the amount £416 19*s.* 4*d.* The total number of scholars attending these schools in 1884 was 9,294. In addition to the above there were 112 private schools, attended by 2,913 scholars.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—The group of islands which composes the dependency of Great Britain known commonly as Malta consists of three islands, Malta, Gozo, and Comino, lying in the Mediterranean at a distance of about 58 miles from the nearest point of Sicily, and about 180 miles from the nearest point on the African coast. Malta, the largest and most important, is about 17 miles long by 9 miles broad, and has an area of about 95 square miles. Gozo has an area of 20 miles, while Comino, which lies between the other two, is very small, having an area of only 7 square miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Malta has an uneven surface, but its highest point does not rise to more than 1,200 feet above the sea level. Naturally it is a barren rock, but by persistent industry it has been rendered generally productive and capable of supporting a somewhat large population. Most of the land in Malta is planted with cotton, but cereals are also extensively produced. In Gozo, attention is principally directed to the rearing of cattle, for the supply of the more numerous population of Malta.

Both islands produce considerable quantities of oranges, lemons, and other fruits, and there are extensive fisheries.

• TOWNS.—The only considerable place in these islands is Valetta, the capital, on the north-east coast of Malta, a strongly fortified town, with an excellent harbour. Besides being the principal naval station of Great Britain in the Mediterranean, Valetta carries on a great trade with the countries of the adjacent mainland. Civita Vecchia, the former capital, is in the interior of the island.

CYPRUS.

HIGH COMMISSIONER AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
MAJOR-GENERAL SIR HENRY EDWARD BULWER, G.C.M.G.

COMMANDING TROOPS,
COLONEL S. HACKETT.

CHIEF SECRETARY,
COLONEL FALKLAND G. F. WARREN, C.M.G., R.A.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
SIR ELLIOT C. BOVILL, KT.

PUISNE JUDGE,
HON. WILLIAM JAMES SMITH.

CYPRUS.

CYPRUS is an island at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea, between Asia Minor and Syria, at a distance of 60 miles from the former and 41 miles from the latter, with which it is connected by a submarine telegraph cable. Its greatest length is about 140 miles, and its greatest breadth about 60 miles. It lies between 34° 30′ and 35° 41′ N. lat., and 32° 15′ and 34° 35′ E. long., and has an area of 3,584 square miles. It is the third island in size in the Mediterranean; Sicily and Sardinia being the only two which are larger. The port of Larnaka on the south coast is 258 miles from Port Said, and 1,117 miles from Valetta, in Malta. The greater part of the island is an irregular parallelogram, terminating at the eastern end in a narrow peninsula, called the Carpas, 40 miles long and from 3 to 10 miles wide. The most remarkable features of the country are the northern and southern mountain chains, and the great plain of the Mesaoria which stretches between them from the Bay of Morfu to the Bay of Famagusta. The northern range, called the Carpas Mountains, and, at their western end, the Kyrenia Mountains, is a continuous chain which borders the north coast of the island from Cape St. Andrea to Cape Kormakiti, a distance of about 100 miles. Its highest point has an altitude of 3,340 feet. The southern and more lofty range is situated in the western and south-western parts of the island, and follows the south coast to an isolated peak called Monte S. Croce, about 12 miles to the west of Larnaka, where it terminates. The highest point in this range is Mount Troödos, with an altitude of 6,590 feet. The summer quarters of the English troops have been established on the south-eastern slopes of this mountain, and it is also the summer residence of the High Commissioner.

None of the rivers of Cyprus are navigable, being mostly mountain torrents which are dry in summer. The two chief rivers are the Pedias and the Idalia, both of which take their course through the Mesaoria Plain. The former rises in the southern range and flows into the sea about four miles north of Famagusta, the mouth being imperfectly defined, owing to the extensive marshes which have formed in its vicinity.

The ancient history of Cyprus is too extensive to be dealt with in this work, but the following are a few of the most important changes:—

Phœnician settlements are supposed to have been founded in the island between the 13th and 10th century B.C., and as early as 900 B.C. the country was divided into states, taking their names from the chief towns in the district, as Salamis, Citium, Amathus, Paphos, etc. The island was under Egyptian control as early as 1100 B.C., and its history begins with its connection with Egypt. It was conquered by the Assyrians probably between 725 and 720 B.C. In the year 550 B.C. Amasis brought the island under Egyptian control. In 521 the Cypriotes espoused the cause of Cambyses, King of Persia, and assisted him in his successful invasion of Egypt. From that time till Persia was conquered by Alexander the Great, the

Island continued to form part of the fifth division of the Persian Empire. In B.C. 310 Cyprus was attached to the Ptolemaic kingdom of Egypt, and remained so connected until it was annexed to the Roman Empire in B.C. 57. Thus, at the time of Our Lord, Cyprus formed part of the Roman Empire. It was the birthplace of Barnabas the Apostle, and was visited by him and St. Paul in the early days of the Christian Church.

When the Roman Empire became divided into the Empires of the West, with Rome as its capital, and of the East, with Constantinople as its capital, Cyprus was connected with the Empire of the East, or Byzantine Empire.

In A.D. 1191 Richard Cœur de Lion, king of England, when on his way to the Holy Land, conquered the island of Cyprus. The nuptials of the English king with Berengaria of Navarre were celebrated at Limassol, in Cyprus, on the 12th of May, 1191, the Archbishop of York there placing the crown of England on the head of the Princess.

Impatient to proceed to the Holy Land, Richard Cœur de Lion sold the island to the Knights Templars for 100,000 besants d'or, a sum whose relative value in our day has been calculated to be £320,000. The Knights Templars were however unable to keep the Island in subjection, and after a few years' possession they requested Richard to take it back. This the English monarch did, and gave it to Guy de Luzignan, a French Crusader, who had assisted him in the conquest of the island. Cyprus was ruled by Guy de Luzignan and his descendants until A.D. 1489, when Catherine Cornaro, the widow of Jacques II., the last of the Luzignan kings, abdicated the throne of Cyprus in favour of the Venetian Republic. The city of Famagusta had been wrested from the Luzignan king Pierre II. in A.D. 1376, by the Genoese, and remained a colony of that commercial republic until A.D. 1264, when it was reconquered by Jacques II.

In A.D. 1571, in the reign of Sultan Selim II., Cyprus was conquered by the Turks, and remained part of the Ottoman Empire from that time.

In 1878 Cyprus became an English possession. On the 4th of June in that year a Convention between the representatives of England and Turkey was signed at Constantinople, providing that England should join the Sultan of Turkey in the defence of his Asiatic possessions against Russia in the event of certain contingencies, and that the Sultan should forthwith assign the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England, in order to enable the latter to make necessary provision for executing her engagements. This Convention was supplemented on the 1st July by an Annex, also signed at Constantinople, explaining the conditions of the occupation, the English official version of which was as follows:—

"I. That a Mussulman religious tribunal (Mehkémé Shéri) shall continue to exist in the island, which will take exclusive cognizance of religious matters, and of no others, concerning the Mussulman population of the island.

"II. That a Mussulman resident in the island shall be named by the Board of Pious Foundations in Turkey (Evkaf) to superintend, in conjunction with a delegate to be appointed by the British authorities, the administration of the property, funds, and lands belonging to the mosques, cemeteries, Mussulman schools, and other religious establishments existing in Cyprus.

"III. That England will pay to the Porte whatever is the present excess of revenue over expenditure in the island; this excess to be calculated upon and determined by the average of the last five years, stated to be 22,936 purses, to be duly verified hereafter, and to the exclusion of the produce of State and Crown lands let or sold during that period.*

"IV. That the Sublime Porte may freely sell and lease lands and other property in Cyprus belonging to the Ottoman Crown and State (Arazil Miriyé vé Emlaki Houmayoun), the produce of which does not form part of the revenue of the island referred to in Article III.

"V. That the English Government, through their competent authorities, may purchase compulsorily, at a fair price, land required for public improvements, or for other public purposes, and land which is not cultivated.

"VI. That if Russia restores to Turkey Kars, and the other conquests made by her in Armenia, during the last war, the Island of Cyprus will be evacuated by England, and the Convention of the 4th of June, 1878, will be at an end."

The government of the island was regulated by an Order in Council issued on the 14th September, 1878, by which the administration was placed in the hands of a High Commissioner, and a Legislative Council was established, to consist of the High Commissioner, and not less than four, and not more than eight other members, half of whom were to be officials and the other half inhabitants not holding office: the latter were appointed to seats in the Council for two years and were eligible for re-appointment. An Executive Council was at the same time established, and the High Commissioner was invested with the powers of pardon, appointment, suspension from office, &c., usually conferred upon a Colonial Governor. The portion of this Order in Council which relates to the Legislative Council was superseded by another, dated the 30th November, 1882, under which that Council consists of the High Commissioner, who is usually to preside, twelve elected members, viz., three Christian and one Mohammedan member for each of the three electoral districts into which the island is divided (every man paying direct taxes being entitled to vote), and six non-elective members who are office holders. British subjects and foreigners paying Verghi taxes can, after five years' residence in the island, exercise the franchise and be eligible for election as well as Ottoman subjects. The High Commissioner may dissolve the Council whenever he thinks fit, but it must in any case be dissolved at the end of five years.

For administrative and legal purposes the island is divided into six districts, viz.: Nicosia, Larnaka, Limassol, Kyrenia, Famagusta, and Papho; the Government being represented in each by a Commissioner.

The courts which were in existence at the time of the British occupation of the island have been superseded by a new set of courts constituted by an Order in Council, dated the 30th Nov., 1882, for:—

(1) A supreme court of appeal, consisting at present of two judges.

(2) Six assize courts having unlimited criminal jurisdiction, and consisting of one or more judges of the supreme court, sitting with one or more judges of the district courts.

(3) Six district courts consisting of a President and two ordinary members, one a Christian and the other a Moslem; and having criminal

* The exercise of these last-named rights by the Porte was agreed to be abandoned, from the 1st April, 1879, for a payment of £5,000 a year.

jurisdiction up to three years' imprisonment, and an unlimited civil jurisdiction.

(4) Six Magistrates' Courts, consisting of the President of the district court or the two ordinary members.

(5) Village courts, now ten in number, in addition to the judges of the six district courts, and having jurisdiction in cases of commonages, debt, disputes as to the division of property &c., up to £5.

Actions in the courts are divided into "Ottoman" and "Foreign" actions, according to the nationality of the defendant or defendants. In "Foreign" actions and in criminal cases against non Ottomans, the President of the Court alone generally exercises jurisdiction.

The Mussulman religious courts (Mahkémé-i-Shérieh) are presided over by Cadis, but their duties are strictly confined to jurisdiction in religious cases affecting the Mohammedan population, as contemplated by the Anglo-Turkish Convention.

The military police force of the island numbers 648 men, who are mostly Moslems.

The climate of Cyprus is very varied in different parts of the island. In the neighbourhood of Larnaka the heat in summer is very great, but is tempered by cool sea breezes. The hottest months are July, August, and September. The winter is short and cold; snow, however, is rarely seen except on the highest peaks of the mountain chains. Fevers are prevalent during the warm months, but are seldom fatal, and only attack the natives. In 1884 the health reports were unusually bad in this respect, owing to the excessive rainfall of that year; the English residents were, however, free from attacks of fever. In many places the causes of unhealthiness are quite local and may easily be removed.

The chief industry of the island in olden times was furnished by its copper mines, which are referred to by Pliny and several of the old writers, but they have fallen into disuse, and it is only recently that concessions have been granted to persons wishing to renew the mining industry of the country. The greater part of the population are now engaged in agricultural pursuits, the produce being grain, carobs (locust beans), cotton of a fine quality, olives, silk, fruit, and wine, much of which is of a rather inferior quality, and is exported to Turkey, Egypt, Syria, and Trieste; great quantities of both this and the better quality are, however, sent to France to be used in strengthening and flavouring fruit of poor vineyards. The best wine is produced near Limassol, but all the Cyprus wines are lessened in value, owing to the tarry flavour they acquire by being carried to port in tarred leather bottles. This practice is however being rapidly superseded by improved methods of transport.

The wines of Cyprus are red when they first come from the press; but after five or six years they become pale. The Muscatel wine is the only one that is white when pressed. This is a sweet wine, and as it grows older it becomes redder, until after a few years it is as thick as syrup.

The Cyprus wines are not equally agreeable at all times of the year, being best in spring and summer. In winter the cold injures them and destroys their flavour and colour. They are exported in casks, but cannot be kept for any length of time unless bottled off. The best wine produced in the island is that called Commanderia.

Agricultural industries have hitherto suffered much from want of water,

and from locusts. The first-named evil arises from a somewhat deficient rainfall, and a want of intelligence on the part of the natives in its storage and distribution. The latter trouble has been much mitigated during the past few years, owing to the vigorous destruction of the locusts by what is known as the "screen and pit system." The screens are stretched across the country in front of the swarms of young locusts on the march, and as these screens are topped with oil-cloth, the locusts are unable to get over them, and are gradually forced into pits dug at intervals transversely to the screens and topped with zinc, so that the locusts are unable to get out of them.

It is estimated that only one-third of the cultivable land of the island is brought under agriculture in any one year.

The corn and cotton mills, quarries, tanneries, and distilleries afford employment to another considerable portion of the inhabitants. In 1884 twelve steam mills were working as well as 280 water mills, and about 60 quarries and pits. These quarries produce good sandstone for building and other purposes, soft marble for paving, granite, lead, terra umbra, and limestone.

In addition to the above, the following classes of artisans, &c., are employed in the island: masons, builders, and carpenters receiving wages of from 1*s.* to 4*s.* per day; smiths, tailors, and boot and shoe makers 1s. to 3*s.* a day; tanners and potters 2*s.* a day; and calico and cloth printers 1*s.* to 2*s.* 6d. These rates seem rather low when compared with the scale of wages paid for the same class of labour in this country, but it must be remembered that provisions can be procured at a proportionately low rate in Cyprus; a few quotations from the prices per oke (2·8 lbs.) for 1884 are given below.

	s.	*cp.		s.	cp.
Beef	.	6½	to	1	
Mutton	.	7	,,	1	
Pork	.	6	,,	1	4½
Butter	2	2	,,	2	7
Sugar	.	5	,,		8

* Cp. a copper piastre, nine of which equal a shilling.

Some idea of the increase in trade which has resulted from the British occupation of the island may be gathered from the following statements of imports and exports:—

	Imports.	Exports.
1878 . . .	£177,651	£157,328
1879 . . .	208,407	222,218
1880 . . .	272,663	209,905
1881 . . .	296,868	266,610
1882 . . .	333,512	276,129
1883–4 . .	344,183	290,210
1884–5 . .	304,375	287,521

Import duties are levied on arms and ammunition, refined salt, tobacco, and upon all other goods not specially exempted. The following are admitted free: machinery and agricultural implements, anchors, chains, boats, coals, empty casks, fresh fish, gold, bullion, and specie, lime, ice, pitch and tar, resin, printed books, sponges taken by licensed boats, timber, grain, chopped straw, cotton seed, church furniture, drugs and medical appliances, stationery, silkworms, eggs, uniforms, leather, belting for machinery, vats or materials for their construction, personal baggage, and the following:—

1. All goods imported for use in the public service.
2. All military stores for the War Department.
3. All goods imported for the use of the High Commissioner.

The importation is prohibited of silver and copper coins, locust eggs, salt, except refined salt, all vegetables, unless hermetically sealed in tin cases, potatoes, and all fresh fruit, flowers and fruit trees coming from French, Turkish, Greek, Austrian, or Italian ports.

The exemptions from taxation previously enjoyed by foreigners have been abolished, except that from the military exemption tax. Certain tithes on minor articles, grapes, carobs, and silk cocoons have also been abolished; but upon the two last-named articles an export duty of 10 per cent., and on raisins 12 per cent., has been imposed instead of tithe. All the ordinary export duties have been abolished by the British Administration, as also the fishing tax.

The revenue of Cyprus is derived chiefly from

1. Verghi taxes, viz. :—

(*a*) Tax of 4 per 1,000 on the purchase value of land or houses occupied by the owner, and other immovable property.

(*b*) A tax of 3 per cent. on trade profits and incomes (excluding salaries).

(*c*) A tax of 4 per cent. on the annual rent of land or houses let.

2. A military exemption tax of 2 shillings and 4½ copper piastres per head on all male inhabitants of the islands between the ages of 18 and 60 not being foreigners.
3. A sheep, goat, and pig tax.
4. Customs duties, port, wharfage, and health dues.
5. An excise on wine, spirits, and tobacco.
6. Stamps, court fees, royalties, licences, &c.
7. Salt monopoly.

The total revenue for 1884 was £187,072, and the expenditure £204,771.

Under Condition III. of the Annex to the Convention of 4th June, 1878, between Great Britain and Turkey (page 529), the former Power undertook to pay to the Porte annually a sum representing the excess of revenue over expenditure calculated on the average of the five years preceding the date of the Convention, excluding the produce of State and Crown lands let or sold during that period. The amount has been determined to be £87,868 per annum: this, in addition to the 4,166,220 okes of salt, to be paid in kind. A sum of £113 11*s.* 3*d.* has also become payable under the same Annex since the 4th September, 1884, when the Cyprus Government took over the administration of the Lighthouse Service of the island. By a further agreement of the 3rd February, 1879, a further sum of £5,000 has to be paid annually to the Porte in respect of the produce of State lands, making a total of £92,800.

During the year 1884, 1,314 vessels, with a total tonnage of 187,989 tons, were entered, and 1,314 vessels, with a tonnage of 186,826 tons, were cleared. There are no public works of any importance in the island, but several bridges have been constructed, an iron screw pile jetty at Papho, and a small prison and police station at the same place. An additional screw pile jetty has recently been constructed at Larnaka, and new works have been added to the great irrigation canal in the Mesaoria.

The chief mineral found in Cyprus in olden times was copper, but it is only recently that attempts have been made to revive the copper trade of the island. Among the minerals now mostly worked are sandstone, marble, granite, limestone, lead, terra umbra, and salt, which is a Government monopoly. The salt lakes, which are very extensive, are in the Larnaka and Limassol districts. The chloride of sodium with which the soil is impregnated combines with the fresh water, which the sun dries up, and leaves a crust of pure salt.

The total population of Cyprus as ascertained by the census of 1881, is 186,173: it is spread over the six districts of the island as follows:—Nicosia, 56,312; Famagusta, 38,207; Larnaka, 20,766; Limassol, 29,248; Papho, 28,424; Kyrenia, 13,216. About one-fourth of the above are Moslems, and the greater part of the remainder belong to the Greek Church; Roman Catholics are, however, represented, as are also the Church of England, Presbyterians, Wesleyans, and Maronites. In addition to the above, the return for 1884 records one Baptist, one Unitarian, one Lutheran, one female representative of the Plymouth Brethren, and one male Free-thinker. There are also a few Jews, Gipsies, and Copts on the island. Detailed tables prepared from the latest returns of population and religious belief are exhibited in the Cyprus Court.

There are a number of schools on the island, and the Government grant in aid in 1884 was raised from £2,000 to £3,000, in addition to which, aid was given in building new schools.

GEOGRAPHY

Situation and Area.—The island of Cyprus is situated in the Eastern part of the Mediterranean, between 34° 30′ and 35° 41′ north latitude, and between 32° 15′ and 34° 35′ east longitude. It has Asia Minor to the north of it, at a distance of some 60 miles, and Syria to the east, at a distance of 41 miles. The greatest length of the island, which has now been systematically surveyed, is from W.S.W. to E.N.E., and measures about 140 miles: its greatest breadth from north to south is about 60 miles. The total area is estimated at 3,584 square miles.

Natural Features.—The island consists of an irregular parallelogram about 100 miles long, by from 60 to 33 miles broad, and a peninsula, called the Carpas, from 3 to 10 miles broad, which extends in a north-easterly direction some 40 miles further. Its principal features are the two mountain ranges which respectively extend along its northern and southern coasts, and a great plain between them called the Mesaoria. The rivers, none of which are navigable, are mostly mountain torrents, dry in summer.

Mountains.—The northern range, known in the east as the Carpas Mountains, and, at the other extremity, as the Kyrenia Mountains, extends along the northern shore of the island for a distance of about 100 miles. The southern range is both more extensive and more lofty. It occupies the western and south-western portions of the island, being continued thence along the south coast to within a short distance of Larnaca, where it terminates in an isolated peak called Santa Croce. The culminating point

of the range is Mount Troödos, the highest mountain in the island, which has an elevation of 6,590 feet.

RIVERS.—The principal are the Pedias, which rises in the southern range and flows north by east through the Mesaoria plain, falling into the sea a little to the north of Famagusta, and the Idalia, which also flows through the Mesaoria.

The island is divided, for administrative purposes, into six provinces, viz.: Nicosia, Famagusta, Larnaca, Limassol, Papho, and Kyrenia.

TOWNS.—The chief towns are Nicosia, the seat of government, with 11,536 inhabitants; Larnaka, with a population of about 7,833; Limassol, with a population of 6,000; Famagusta, Kyrenia, and Ktima. The first five are the respective capitals of the provinces of the same names, while Ktima is the modern capital of Papho. Limassol and Larnaka are on the sea, but they have no harbours. Kyrenia is also on the coast, and has some little trade with the neighbouring mainland of Asia Minor. At Famagusta it has been proposed to construct a great harbour, but at present the town is wholly insignificant, containing, with its suburb, Varosia (the population of which are nearly all Christians), little over 2,000 inhabitants.

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
THOMAS KERR.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR,
A. C. BARKLY.

COLONIAL SECRETARY AND TREASURER,
E. P. BROOKS.

CHIEF JUSTICE,
THE GOVERNOR.

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THE Falkland Islands, or Les Isles Malouines, as they are called by the French, are situated in the South Atlantic Ocean, about 240 miles north-east of Tierra del Fuego, between 51° and 53° south latitude, and between 57° and 62° west longitude. They consist mainly of two larger islands—the East Falkland, with an area of 3,000 square miles, and the West Falkland, with 2,300 square miles—which, with South Georgia, an island 800 miles east south-east of the Falkland group, with an area of 1,570 square miles; and about 100 other islands, some of which are uninhabited, bring up the total superficial area to about 6,500 square miles. The interiors of the islands are mountainous, and Mount Adam, the highest point in the Colony, has an altitude of 2,315 feet above sea-level. From certain parts of the upper region of these mountain ranges, streams of stones from 20 to 30 feet wide descend into the valleys. The stones, which are spread out in the valleys to a great extent, vary in size from one to four cubic feet, and their angles but little damaged. The shores of these islands are rocky and covered with mud.

The Falklands were first discovered by Davis in 1592, and were visited by Hawkins in 1594. In the year 1763 they were taken possession of by the French, and afterwards held by the Spaniards until 1771, when they were abandoned, and the sovereignty of them given up to Great Britain. A settlement established in these islands in 1820 by the Republic of Buenos Ayres was destroyed by the Americans in 1831. In 1833 they were again taken possession of by the British and colonised for the purpose of protecting the whale fishery.

The climate, though somewhat bleak, is considered healthy, and may be compared to that experienced at a height of between 1,000 and 2,000 feet on the mountains of North Wales; it has, however, less sunshine and frost, but more wind and rain. During the summer a calm day is unusual; the wind rises at about 10 A.M., often becomes a gale during the middle of the day, and falls away again between 4 and 5 P.M. In summer the weather is so cool and uncertain that wheat rarely ripens, but in winter the weather is less boisterous, and the thermometer seldom falls below 30°. The temperature is, on the whole, equable, the thermometer ranging from 40° to 65° in summer, and from 30° to 50° in winter. Snow rarely lies on the ground in the lowlands, and ice has not been known to exceed two inches in thickness. The atmosphere is remarkably dry in summer and evaporation is rapid.

In 1874 the Governor of these islands made a very favourable report to the Colonial Office as to the future prospects of the Colony. It appears that the climate during the last twenty years has undergone great changes

the winters having become much less severe; a fact which goes some way to confirm the theory of the late Professor Agassiz, that a branch of the equatorial current has taken a south-westerly course in the direction of the Falkland Islands.

The government is administered by a Governor, assisted by an Executive Council of three members, and a Legislative Council, the members of which are the Governor for the time being, who acts as president, the officers discharging the duties of Colonial Secretary and Police Magistrate, the Colonial Surgeon, and such other persons as may be designated under the Royal Sign Manual. The members of both these Councils are appointed by the Crown.

The islands are chiefly pasture-land, and the only portion under cultivation is that used as kitchen gardens. No manufactures are produced, the population being for the most part engaged in sheep-farming and seafaring industries. There are however a few artizans (chiefly carpenters, masons, and blacksmiths) in the Colony. A wild grass called tussac, which is about 7 feet high with a breadth of about $\frac{3}{4}$ inch, grows in abundance along the coasts of the small islands, and is very fattening for cattle: it has however disappeared on the main islands since the introduction of cattle, owing to their rooting it up, and it can now only be grown with a strong fence.

It is estimated that in 1884 there were on the islands 2,770 horses, 11,569 horned cattle, 473,227 sheep, and 1,002 goats. Rabbits, snipe, geese, wild duck, dotterel, teal, hares, wild cattle, horses, and pigs, are found in the islands in large quantities. Sweet scented flowers grow in great variety, and in November and December nearly cover the ground. Anti-scorbutics, such as celery, sorrel scurvy grass, and cranberries, grow wild; there is also a small plant called the tea plant, which is used by Gauchos und sealers.

The principal exports are wool, seal and sheep skins, seal oil, sheep, horses, horns, hoofs, hides, bones, and tallow. The wool exported from these islands of late years has greatly improved in quality and fetches a high price in the London markets. In 1884, 2,536,257 lbs. were exported, the value of which was about £84,540. The tallow exported was worth £13,314, the sheep skins £5,686, and the hides £4,242. The total exports for that year amounted to £101,338.

The imports consist chiefly of flour and corn, wearing apparel, timber, hardware, and sundry provisions for general consumption. The total value of imports for 1884 was £67,848.

Duties are chargeable upon wines, spirits, and all alcoholic liquors, tobacco and cigars. British wines and all other unenumerated beverages (except soda, potash and mineral waters) pay duty as wines.

The only important food product of the islands is meat. This is retailed at a very low price, beef selling at from 2*d.* to 3*d.* per lb., and mutton 2*d.* to 3½*d.*; other provisions cost about double the price at which they are procurable in England. Meat is so plentiful that prisoners are allowed ½ lb. daily for dinner, besides a pint of soup, ½ lb. of bread, and 1 lb. of potatoes. Only sufficient vegetables are grown for home consumption. Small quantities of fish are taken—mullet, smelt, small rock cod, a kind of herring, skate, and trout—but there is no regular fish trade.

The revenue of the Colony is derived from Customs duties, licences,

harbour dues, land and tenement tax, sale of Crown lands, and a few miscellaneous receipts. In 1884 the total revenue amounted to £9,687, as against £8,337 for the previous year. The principal items were: Customs, £2,670; land revenue, £4,319; and sale of Crown lands, £1,015.

The expenditure for 1884 was £7,807, against £8,728 for 1883. The Colony has no public debt.

In 1884 the total tonnage of vessels entered was 33,086 tons, and cleared 31,421 tons. These included British, Swedish, American, Italian, Norwegian and German vessels.

There is a regular monthly service of steamers of the Cosmos Company, calling six times a year at Stanley on their way out to Callao, and six times on the return journey. The voyage between Dartmouth and Stanley generally takes about five weeks. The Pacific Company's steamers also carry mails for the Islands, between Liverpool and the Straits of Magellan, whence they are conveyed by the steamers of the Cosmos Company. In addition to these, 18 small vessels are employed in the coasting trade of the islands; and two local schooners are engaged in sealing.

There are no mines in the Colony, but granite and limestone are found, and there are beds of sandstone in which are perfect impressions of shells.

The population in 1884 was 1,553 persons, viz., 976 males and 577 females. The births for the same year were 23 males and 26 females; and there were also 32 deaths registered, viz., 24 males and 8 females; and 9 marriages.

There are three small elementary schools in the Colony, which are attended by 155 scholars; and three small places of worship (each holding about 80 or 100 persons), viz., one Church of England, 1 Roman Catholic, 1 Presbyterian.

GEOGRAPHY.

SITUATION AND AREA.—The Falkland Islands are situated in the South Atlantic Ocean, about 200 miles due east from the entrance to the Straits of Magellan. They consist of two large islands—East Falkland, with an area of 3,000 square miles, and West Falkland, with an area of 2,300 square miles—and about 100 smaller ones, containing together an area of about 1,200 square miles. The two larger islands are separated from one another by a channel called Falkland Sound.

NATURAL FEATURES.—East Falkland is crossed by a chain of hills, running east and west, which have an altitude varying from 800 to 2,300 feet, but the greater part of the island, though undulating, lies low. West Falkland has, upon the whole, a greater general elevation, although its highest points fall short of those of the neighbouring island. Much of the surface consists of moorland and bog, with much peat, which furnishes good fuel. The soil in the bottoms of the valleys is, however, fertile, and affords good pasturage. There are few rivers, but the country is well watered by springs and ponds.

SETTLEMENTS.—The only settlement of any importance is Stanley, a free port, at the head of Port William, upon the coast of East Falkland.

HELIGOLAND.

GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
LIEUTENANT-COLONEL J. T. N. O'BRIEN, C.M.G.

GOVERNMENT SECRETARY,
H. GÄTKE.

STIPENDIARY MAGISTRATE,
CAPTAIN J. CAMPBELL.

HELIGOLAND.

HELIGOLAND is an island in the North Sea, in 7° 51′ east longitude, 54° 11′ north latitude, situated opposite to and about 25 miles from the mouth of the Elbe. Its area, including the adjacent island of "Sandy," is about three-fourths of a square mile.

Heligoland was captured by the British in 1807, and formally ceded to Great Britain under the treaty of Kiel in 1814. It was much larger at one time than it now is, Sandy Island having formed a part of it until 1720, when they were separated by a storm. It is on Sandy Island that the sea bathing, which is considered to be the finest in the world, takes place. The reefs round the islands are very dangerous, and wrecks were at one time of frequent occurrence, but an excellent lighthouse with fog signal station render such disasters rare. A rocket station and life-saving apparatus have also been established, and are worked by the English and local coast-guard.

The main island consists of a red sandstone cliff, about 170 feet high, with, except in one part, inaccessible sides. The town is divided into two parts, the underland on the beach containing the bathing establishment, "Conversations" house, theatre, coastguards, barracks, hotels, &c. The Oberland, to which access is obtained by a flight of 192 steps, and by a lift worked by steam power, contains the largest number of houses, including a church, schools, Governor's residence, lighthouse, &c.

Heligoland is very healthy, its climate being most bracing, equable, and mild, while it is cooler in summer and warmer in winter than England or the Continent. Visitors to the number of nearly 10,000 come over during the bathing season, which extends from May to October, and in addition to these, excursionists flock over in large numbers from the adjoining towns.

The principal industry of the Heligolanders is fishing, which is carried on by a fleet of open boats, built entirely of oak, and flat bottomed to enable them to be beached. The fish are caught entirely by lines, which are shot across the stream, the first line being secured to an anchor which is buoyed; the boat then stands across, veering the lines as she goes, each line being bent to the next, and having a small anchor to take it to the bottom, and keep it there. When the end of the last line is nearly out, the boat anchors, and after a time weighs and works towards the buoy, hauling the lines in as she goes. The bait usually consists of sand eels, which are principally obtained from "Sandy Island." There are two fishing seasons, from March to June and from October to January. The fish caught consist principally of haddock, with a few cod, and sometimes turbot.

Lobsters to the number of nearly 30,000 are collected annually on the rocks, from the middle of June to the middle of September. These are

stored in boxes for local use, or are sent to the Continent, where they are much appreciated. The average price realised for lobsters per lb. is from 7½*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*

The Heligoland oyster bank is fished from September to March, the average yield per annum being 130,000, and the price paid is 7 marks per 1000 delivered on the island.

In an able paper contributed by Colonel O'Brien, the Governor of the island, to the Executive Council of the International Fisheries Exhibition, he observes that "though the waters of the North Sea abound in fish, and often fleets of English, German, and Dutch smacks are in sight of the island, the Heligolanders, though yielding to none as fishermen, cannot participate in the riches which God has brought to their door, for without a harbour they can but use vessels such as can be hauled up in bad weather, and therefore such as preclude them from going to sea in bad weather."

ADEN.

ADEN consists of a promontory and town of the same name on the south coast of Arabia, about 110 miles to the eastward of the Strait of Babel Mandeb, together with a strip of territory stretching some 3 miles inland, the area of the whole being about 70 square miles. The promontory forms a high and rocky peninsula, with an elevation of 1776 feet. It is connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus. The town is on the north-east side of the peninsula, in a deep hollow formed by the crater of an extinct volcano, and surrounded by high rocks. Besides being strongly fortified, Aden is an important coaling station, and a place of considerable trade.

PERIM, a small island at the entrance to the Red Sea, is a dependency of Aden, and SOCOTRA, an island lying some 150 miles E.N.E. of Cape Guardafui, is under the protection of the Government of Aden, which pays a small subsidy to its owner, the Sultan of Keshin. Socotra has an area of about 3,000 square miles.

The following concerning this settlement are taken from the "Colonial Office List."

"The peninsula of Aden is situated in lat. 12° 47′ N., and long. 45° 10′ E., about 100 miles east of the Straits of Babel Mandeb, on the Arabian coast. Besides the peninsula a strip of territory stretching about three miles inland belongs to England, the whole area being about seventy square miles. The town of Aden is situated on the side of a rocky promontory, and is very strongly fortified. It is a most important coaling station, and also an entrepôt for the trade with Arabia. The imports in 1883 amounted to £2,014,580 and the exports to £1,448,890. The exports consist of coffee, dyes, feathers, gums, spices, etc. The settlement is subject to the government of Bombay, being presided over by a president, who is also commander of the troops in the garrison.

"Perim, an island situated at the entrance of the Red Sea, is a dependency of Aden, and in consideration of an undertaking not to cede to any other power than Great Britain Socotra, an island situated about 150 miles E.N.E. of Cape Guardafui, and lying in the direct route to India, the government of Aden pays a small subsidy to the Sultan of Keshin, to whom it belongs. The area of the island is about 3000 square miles."

PORT HAMILTON.

THIS new settlement, which was occupied as a naval station in 1884, is situated some 38 miles off the Corean peninsula, and consists of the three islands of Sodo, Sunhodo, and Observatory Island. It contains a good harbour, and commands the entrance between the Yellow Sea and the Sea of Japan.

The population numbers about 2,000, and the principal product of the settlement is millet.

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